

American Education in the Postwar Period

FORTY-FOURTH YEARBOOK

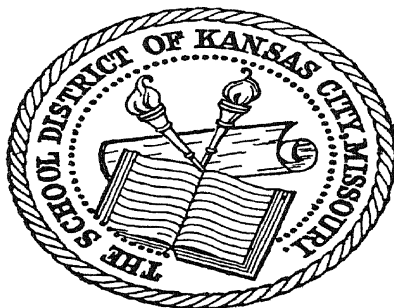
PART II

Structural Reorganization

part 2 (2)

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THE FORTY-FOURTH YEARBOOK

OF THE
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY
OF EDUCATION

AMERICAN EDUCATION IN THE
POSTWAR PERIOD

PART II
STRUCTURAL REORGANIZATION

Prepared by the Society's Committee

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CHAPTER I

CHALLENGES TO THE PRESENT STRUCTURE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

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I. PHENOMENAL GROWTH IN PUBLIC EDUCATION

During the seventy-five years for which nation-wide statistics of education are available, the educational system of the United States has experienced amazing growth. These years have been busy ones in all aspects of our national life. The boundaries of the nation have been filled out, with eleven new states being organized. Our population is nearly three and a half times greater than it was in 1870, shifting in the twenty years from 1920 to 1940 from 51 per cent rural to 56 per cent urban. Seventy-eight cities have in this three-quarters of a century passed the hundred thousand mark. Our national income has increased likewise from nearly seven billion dollars in 1869 to seventy-six billion in 1940 and, under conditions created by the war, doubled again by 1943.

Paralleling these skyrocketing figures of national development are those for education, with the schools' clientele grown from approximately seven million pupils in public schools in 1870 to twenty-five and a half million in 1940—an increase of more than 250 per cent in seventy years.¹ Our concept of a free secondary education for every boy and girl as a means of attaining an educated citizenry for defending and extending democratic government has startled an observant world; consequently, interest has frequently focused on increased high-school enrolments as a mark of the extent to which we have attained our goal. These enrolments, having doubled every decade from 1880 to 1930, then went on to gain another 50 per cent by 1940. Whereas only seven boys and girls in every hundred of the fourteen-to seventeen-year-old group went to high school

¹ Statistics in this section come for the most part from the United States Office of Education's *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1933-40*, II, "Statistical Summary of Education, 1939-40," chap. i. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

in 1890, seventy-two of every hundred of them were enrolled in high schools in 1943.

Elementary-school performance has been equally dramatic. Starting with an enrolment of 6,791,295 in 1870, public elementary-school enrolments approximately doubled their numbers by 1890, and then continued to gain at the rate of two million each decade until 1930. A rough estimate of what it means to provide for two million new students each decade would be fifty thousand new classrooms; assuredly, it means some new teachers. This need is reflected in the phenomenal growth in the number of students in normal schools and teachers' colleges during this period. Starting with 34,814 students in 1890, they doubled in the next decade, doubled again by 1920, and reached a high point of 175,000 in 1930. Thus, the total number of teachers employed to serve the schools' rapidly increasing clientele doubled to 423,062 from 1870 to 1900, doubled again by 1930, and still continues around seven-eighths of a million persons.

With this absorption into the classroom of 85 per cent of all the children from five to seventeen years of age, there came a natural and necessary specialization. A school cannot intelligently and adequately serve the needs of all of these children in exactly the same way. There have been numerous new curriculums, and even "new schools" have developed during this period of greatest expansion. One of the first of these was for very young children. Starting, as so many social improvements do, as private and even charitable enterprises, kindergartens had been provided for 15,145 children in public schools and 16,082 in private schools by 1890. These specialized provisions for very young children were adopted by school systems so rapidly that nearly three-quarters of a million children were enrolled in public kindergartens alone by 1930.

Another early development, growing both in prestige and in number, are the special schools and classes for exceptional children. Beginning with the establishment of the first residential school for the deaf in 1817, special schools followed also for the blind, the mentally deficient, and the socially maladjusted. Day-school systems took up the movement in the latter part of the nineteenth century, and it has made rapid progress especially during the past three decades. In 1940 approximately four hundred thousand children attended schools and classes providing specialized training for boys and girls having physical, mental, or behavior problems, nearly a fifth of the total number being in residential schools.

The junior high school, while not a new school in the sense of serving a new or additional group of students, introduced a new type of grade grouping, a new form of school unit. Aiming to provide for the special interests of early adolescents as many elementary schools were not

equipped to do, separate junior high school units increased in number from 387 to 2,372 in the school systems which reported statistics regularly in the sixteen years preceding 1938. Another 6,000 junior-senior or undivided high schools were reported for the year 1938. Though the development of these new junior high school units has been fairly rapid, it has been exceedingly ragged. Some are two-year institutions, some are three, others four. To secure a complete report on all their enrolments, Negro and white, it is now necessary for the United States Office of Education to list thirty-two types, differing in grade make-up.

Though occupational instruction was by no means unknown in the schools, particularly since the turn of the century, the principal impetus to rapid growth in such opportunities came in 1917 with the provision of federal aid for vocational education. Since then, increases in both vocational courses and separate vocational schools have been continuous, with enrolments in federally aided classes increasing from less than three hundred thousand in 1920 to more than two million in 1940.

Higher education during the last three-quarters of a century has likewise grown in numbers and increased its special types of services. A million and a half students were in college in the regular session in 1940, half of them in graduate and professional schools. Of the innovations in new types of school units at the higher education level, the junior college is probably the best known. Increasing from a mere fifty-two in 1920 to nearly six hundred in 1940, the junior college like the junior high school represents a still undefined, or at least not uniformly defined, type of school organization. About half of the junior colleges are now public, half of them private; of the publicly controlled, 174 are upward extensions of secondary schools, while 43 are state institutions, with state control and financial assistance.

Not only the training of personnel, but housing too has had a difficult time keeping up with these rocketing increases in all parts of our educational system. The number of school buildings for elementary and secondary schools increased by a hundred thousand during the period 1870 to 1940, while the nation multiplied by ten its annual expenditures for school buildings, sites, and equipment during the fifty years preceding 1940.

II. NEED FOR APPRAISAL

The picture we have, then, of the last three-quarters of a century is of a country racing along to keep up with its dream of an adequate educational opportunity for every boy and girl. More schools, more teachers, more classrooms, more special types of schools came with such an outpouring of a nation's wealth and confidence as has never been experienced in any

other place, at any time; and even then, the emerging public education system could barely keep up with the need. No wonder that as these new schools and new types of schools multiplied, they sometimes seemed to be added on to and to be changing the shape of the original educational structure, somewhat as does each succeeding addition to a typical New England farmhouse.

But what is the situation now? What are the present trends? The steady decrease in the nation's child population results in a declining school enrolment, the high point in public elementary- and secondary-school enrolments having been reached in 1934. There are now many small schools, high schools as well as elementary schools. There are, for example, an estimated three hundred thousand students in high schools of fewer than ten enrollees each. One-teacher schools, mostly elementary, still number more than a hundred thousand. Obviously, the decline in enrolments, now well under way, brings pressing problems of adjustment; it also affords opportunity for a long look at the educational structure we have been building, a critically appraising look which we have scarcely had time for in the past seventy-five years. War has brought its problems, with many students and teachers alike hastening off to wartime employment or leaving for the armed services. But even apart from the exigencies of the war, public education in this country had reached a turning point—a sort of age of maturity which comes to a nation as its population becomes static. No longer is it bursting its seams in its rapid growth. Instead, it is ready for appraisal and for a plan of adjustment commensurate with and equal to its changing needs and obligations.

III. WAR-INDUCED PROBLEMS OF ADJUSTMENT FACING THE SCHOOLS

No appraisal of education's part in wartime activities need be undertaken here. Suffice it to say that generally the schools have won the public's approbation for the speed and flexibility they have shown in adapting instructional programs to new needs for wartime services; for their ready participation in and even conduct of major wartime campaigns and service projects; and for their maintenance of the normal school services and extensions into new ones called for by the emergency, in spite of drastic shortages of labor and equipment and the imposition of restrictions which made operation a continuous series of crises.

Now that the nation is facing the eventful period of adjustment to peacetime economy, education shares in many of the problems. Some of them involve principles or practices not perfected when war came; others are problems arising directly from war conditions. Many of them concern the instructional program; others relate directly to problems or inadequacies in the structure of education. Several of these latter are de-

scribed here, to show their implications for needed changes in the organization of public education.

1. Retraining of Displaced War-Workers

The need for manpower in the nation's war plants brought a new problem to vocational schools throughout the country—that of training large numbers of persons very rapidly to do a specific job in a specific industry. By October 30, 1944, nearly seven million men and women had been given training, including that needed for expanded programs in the aviation, shipbuilding, machine tools, ordnance, and other war industries; in mining, lumbering and leather industries, motor and railroad transportation, and communications; and in supervision and foremanship. Tens of thousands of all types of persons—young and aged, clerks, housewives, and handicapped persons—have learned skills needed on the production lines.

With the change-over to a civilian economy will come the need for both long-term and short-term training to utilize the wartime training and experience of these war-workers. For many, peacetime jobs will not be the same. Machine operators, assemblers, inspectors, and others who have acquired highly specialized skills for wartime occupations will want some additional training for the new fields of employment which will come with the return to peace.

Vocational schools will be faced with many problems of adjustment, some of which can scarcely be anticipated. For example, will the hundreds of thousands of persons who have rushed to highly centralized war areas remain there for retraining or will they go back home? Will peacetime employment be as highly centralized as were war industries, with a consequent centralization of training facilities? In other words, where will additional vocational schools be needed? For those who must continue to earn a living while they secure the necessary training, part-time training through arrangements between schools and industries or public works programs may be needed. Furthermore, many will want to continue their general education which was interrupted for wartime employment. It is certain that if we are to avoid the disasters of unemployment of the thirties, flexibility in working out new patterns of retraining will be required of the schools.

2. Postwar Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel

When the President signed the bill on November 13, 1942, calling for the induction of young men, he appointed a committee of educators to study the problem of providing educational opportunities for servicemen and women after the war should end. In so doing, he proposed that

young people whose education had been interrupted should be enabled to resume their studies and that others should be given the opportunity for general education and technical training. On July 30, 1943, the committee submitted a preliminary report, embodying certain recommendations as to types of training to be available, length of the training period, eligibility for training, allowances, and administrative arrangements.

These recommendations have received widespread attention, and many of them have been incorporated in the comprehensive program of benefits for discharged service personnel known as the G.I. Bill, which was enacted into law and signed by the President on June 22, 1944. The deliberations on this bill are of especial significance in connection with the problem of what changes are needed in the structure of American education. Discussions brought out the assumption that of those returning service personnel who wished to accept the educational opportunities to be afforded, approximately 10 per cent would be prepared for study on the college level; another 10 or 15 per cent would probably wish general education of less than college grade, either as elementary instruction or as preparation for technical or professional training; and the remaining 75 or 80 per cent would wish vocational training. In the consideration of administrative arrangements to be incorporated into legislation, two major questions inevitably arose. The first was as to whether all services for veterans should be handled by the Veterans' Bureau or whether the educational services, representing a specialized function, should be administered by educational agencies—federal, state, and local. This question was settled by the so-called G.I. Bill, which placed administration of all services with the Veterans' Bureau. The second major question was whether in the several states there are state educational agencies which are competent, legally and functionally, to administer a program ranging across the whole field of education—from elementary instruction through the university, involving both general and vocational education. Careful examination of the evidence on this question must lead to an answer in the negative.

Here is exposed one of public education's most serious structural weaknesses. Though education is primarily a state responsibility, the states have been slow to consolidate their independently developed programs into integrated, smoothly operating state systems, with responsibility located in a chief state education authority. State boards of education, for example, may and frequently do exercise general jurisdiction over elementary and secondary schools but possess no authority over the colleges and universities in the state. Again, though there is a state board having responsibility for vocational education of less than college grade

in each state, this board rarely has a similar responsibility for the technical and vocational education at the college level.

Practice differs widely with respect to the responsibilities of the state board of education. To show the variation the states may be grouped, even though roughly, under five types. Each state in the first group—Florida, Idaho, Montana, and New York—has one state board of education with jurisdiction over all levels and types of public education—elementary, secondary, vocational, and higher education. Group two is made up of twelve states, each of which has a state board of education with jurisdiction over public elementary, secondary, vocational education, and teachers colleges and normal schools, but has a separate board or boards for college education. In group three there are seventeen states, each of which has a state board of education with jurisdiction limited to public elementary, secondary, and vocational education, but with a separate board or boards having jurisdiction over college education. In group four, consisting of six states, each has a state board of education with jurisdiction limited to public elementary and secondary education but with a separate state board for public vocational education, and a separate board or boards with jurisdiction over college education. And finally in group five are those nine states which have no state boards of education with jurisdiction over public elementary and secondary education, but which do have a separate board for public vocational education and a separate board or boards with jurisdiction over college education.

From the above groupings it will be noted that while all states have state boards for vocational education, only thirty-two states assign these functions to the state boards of education. In seven of the remaining sixteen states, the state board of education operates separately from the state board for vocational education while in nine states there is no state board of education. In these nine states the chief state school officer has the authority commonly residing in the state board of education in other states.

Certain other significant variations among the states are not revealed by the groupings above. While the state board of education controls the teachers colleges and normal schools in sixteen states, it controls also one or more other colleges in eight of these states, although in these eight states other colleges and universities are under the jurisdiction of another board or boards. In nine states a single board governs all public institutions of higher education. In two states the central over-all board has limited functions in the field of higher education while there is a separate board for the management of each institution or group of institutions under policies established by the over-all board. In some states having

single boards for all higher education, there is an executive officer, usually called a chancellor, who exercises large responsibility for initiating policies, while in other states there is no such officer, the board functioning through a secretary.

It should be clear from this description of educational agencies that no common pattern exists in the states. This fact is true to the American tradition of encouraging independence of action and experimentation in educational procedures among states, but it complicates the problem whenever the Federal Government undertakes to participate in any educational function in the states.²

The question confronting educational leaders throughout the country is: How can the states adjust their educational organizations so as to enable them to operate federally financed programs most effectively and thus retain in the states the responsibility for administering education? Specifically, in a program of education for returning service personnel which must cut across the whole range of educational offerings in a state, how should the Federal Government legislate to co-operate with the states in the face of such variations and, in some instances, actual inadequacies?

3. Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons

In February, 1944, the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation of the Federal Security Agency estimated that there were at that time more than a million handicapped persons who could be rehabilitated, and that each year a hundred thousand more would join the group. Add to this number the anticipated thousands of wounded veterans to return, and the need for efficiently organized services for physical and vocational rehabilitation is obvious.

Experience in this country in providing services for the adult handicapped has been varied. It began in 1920, with legislation which provided that the disabled, both veterans and civilians, should be cared for by the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the co-operating state boards. In so far as veterans were concerned, this function was later transferred to the Veterans' Bureau, which included physical as well as vocational rehabilitation among its services and paid tuition costs and liberal maintenance allowances during the training period. In 1926 another change resulted in the assignment once more of veterans' rehabilitation to the federal agency for vocational rehabilitation of civilians, by now a division in the Office of Education. This Division of Vocational

² From a report presented at United States Office of Education national conference on prospective education programs calling for federal-state co-operation, March 3 and 4, 1944. Washington, D.C.

Rehabilitation, in co-operation with state boards for vocational education, provided for the training and placement in industry of 210,125 persons during the period from 1920 to 1943. In July, 1943, amendments to the original act made certain significant changes, broadening the program to include any services necessary to render disabled persons capable of engaging in remunerative employment or to render them more advantageously employable. Included are surgical or medical care, hospitalization, therapeutic treatment, artificial appliances, vocational guidance and training, maintenance during training, and placement in employment. The amendments further provided that the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation should thereafter function as a unit of the Federal Security Agency separate from the Office of Education but, in the states, should work through the state boards for vocational education.

In the meantime, veterans discharged from the armed services because of disability now receive both physical and vocational rehabilitation services under the auspices of the Veterans' Bureau; this bureau in turn must seek its training facilities from sources similar to those used by the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation. If both training programs are to continue, some differentiation in the functions of the two administrative agencies and a clarification of the channels for securing training resources will be needed in order that schools and colleges may be of most help.

4. The School in a Postwar Public Works Program

It is probable that an extensive public works program will be one of the means used to provide for the maintenance of employment during the years of adjustment from war to peace. If the nation's previous experience is followed, such a program will include participation by all levels of government—local, state, regional, and federal—with appropriate contributions from and authority lodged in each. In the public works program of the thirties, priority was given to the construction of public facilities, that is, those commonly administered by public agencies and supported by public funds. Among these, buildings for educational purposes ranked high both in numbers and in cost.

According to reports of the Public Works Administration,³ at least half of all the projects undertaken between the years 1933 and 1939 were for schools and colleges, 99 per cent of the total number being elementary and secondary schools. The projects relating to the public school systems involved 12,700 school buildings, with more than 60,000 classrooms, and expenditures of approximately one and a quarter billion dollars, of which

³ C. W. Short and R. Stanley-Brown, *Public Buildings: Architecture under the Public Works Administration, 1933 to 1939*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

PWA supplied nearly half. One noteworthy fact is that most of this aid went to rural areas and small towns, two-thirds of the school buildings being in school districts outside the cities.

Two shortcomings have commonly been attributed to the former public works program as it operated in relation to schools. First, it emphasized the need for immediate action; it did not—possibly could not—require a long-range plan of the community which submitted a project. As for the school structures, many of them were replacements; a school was too small, or it was outmoded, or it was in disrepair and the community wished it to be replaced. In other cases, school-building projects represented an expansion of facilities, made necessary because of increases, real or anticipated, in school population. Some large cities and a few states having well-staffed school-building departments had fortunately been able to survey their needs, lay out a building program for a period of years, and even prepare plans and specifications.

Most school districts were not so well prepared. Therefore many communities did not secure the buildings they actually needed; some buildings were constructed for which the anticipated needs did not materialize or which would better have served the need had they been erected in some other place; and other buildings were found to be inadequate to serve the needs of all the area which should have been served, because no comprehensive survey had been made prior to acceptance and approval of the project.

The second commonly recognized shortcoming of the public works program in relation to schools is that it involved direct dealings of the Federal Government with local school districts, without the establishment of any significant relationship to state educational authorities. No one of the 115,000 school districts—from those having one-room schools to large cities having hundreds of schools—was precluded from making its wants known directly to the Federal Government. It often happened, however, that project applications were made by local school districts without their having taken into account the needs of adjoining districts or the possibilities of joint planning. Consolidation of school districts is most easily accomplished when there is the central need for and incentive of a new and better school building. The frequently hasty and partial planning done by local school officials has in some areas stopped progress toward reorganization of school districts for a generation or more.

Schools now face the repetition of some such experience, unless they can prepare rapidly and soon for more effective co-operation with the Federal Government in a postwar public works program. There will be the same need for speed, the same need for clear designation of authority. Unless there is in each state a detailed plan for a school-building pro-

gram, unless there is in each state department of education the authority to represent the state in matters relating to school construction, unless there is a dependable plan for the rapid and orderly allotment of projects, the immense possibilities of a public works program may not be realized to the advantage of schools.

5. Distribution of War-connected Surplus Properties for Educational Use

The speed and degree of completeness with which the United States developed its modern war machine astounded her enemies. From almost a standing start, she rapidly built a co-ordinated fighting force and placed it on six continents for offensive or defensive action. A catalog of the individual items of equipment required to do this would show what industry has been doing in the last few years. Tremendous stocks of equipment and supplies have been built up to keep this war machine going efficiently for as long as is necessary.

Even in the early spring of 1944, however, surplus stocks were beginning to be released to civilian purchasers, and it was estimated that the stocks to be disposed of would eventually aggregate from fifty to one-hundred billion dollars. In February, 1944, the Baruch and Hancock report on adjustment policies⁴ recommended certain policies for the disposal of surplus properties, expressly mentioning educational institutions as desirable users. It is certain that schools and colleges should be able to use large quantities of such stores if the terms and conditions of disposal are such that schools can take advantage of them. All parts of the country should be able to participate, not just those near some "depot" or distribution center; small schools as well as large ones having storage facilities should have a share; there should be some inexpensive means of appraisal of stocks for school use. Representatives of approximately thirty leading national educational and lay organizations, meeting in Washington in March, 1944, recommended that the legally constituted state educational agencies be authorized to take title to and utilize or distribute the surpluses available for school use. This raises again the question of the availability of a state educational agency legally qualified to handle matters involving all levels and types of education. How can the states adjust their educational organizations so that they can co-operate most effectively with the Federal Government in educational programs in which the Federal Government shares, but for which responsibility of administration should reside with the states?

⁴ Bernard M. Baruch and John M. Hancock, *Report on War and Postwar Adjustment Policies, February 15, 1944*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

6. Health and Physical Condition of Children and Youth

As reports of the number of young men rejected for military service first came out, there was widespread amazement. When the first two million men were examined, a million were rejected for physical and mental defects or educational deficiencies. It seemed incredible, but in the next million the percentage of deficiencies was the same. Even among eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds, where the rate of induction for the fighting forces was highest, the rejection rate was high, reaching 25.4 per cent in a sampling of 45,585 registrants during February, 1943.⁵

There probably was no excuse for such surprise over these figures. Similar reports had been issued for years, but not considered particularly newsworthy. In 1941 the National Youth Administration had reported that of every hundred youth examined, eighty-five needed dental care, twenty needed refractions, nineteen needed tonsillectomies, fourteen needed additional diagnostic procedures, twelve needed special diets, and eleven needed study by a specialist. In 1939 the National Health Survey showed what heavy costs we bear as a nation for ill health.

Similarly, reports by school officials had shown clearly that resources were not sufficient and procedures not adequate to correct the situation. Not more than 10 per cent of the young people in high school were regularly receiving health examinations; possibly 20 per cent received regular health instruction. In the colleges, health instruction and health services were inadequate, from the standpoint not only of college administrators but of college students themselves. In elementary schools, where health examinations and health instruction are accepted practice, the gap between examination and correction is frequently a wide one.

The consequences of failing to correct remediable defects revealed in school children's health examinations were shown in a study made by the United States Public Health Service⁶ of the physical status of a sample of selectees as observed fifteen years before, when the men were school children. Comparing causes of rejection and the health examination records of the same individuals during school years, *it was apparent that had those records been taken seriously, a high proportion of the rejections could have been anticipated and forestalled.*

A functioning health program for school children has these three essential parts—health examinations, follow-up to guarantee the correction

⁵ Colonel Leonard G. Rowntree, "Education, Health, and Physical Fitness," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, XIV (September, 1943), 370-72, 388-91.

⁶ Antonio Ciocco, Henry Klein, and Carroll E. Palmer, "Child Health and the Selective Service Physical Standards." Reprint No. 2338 from the Public Health Reports, LVI (December 12, 1941), 2365-75.

of remediable defects, and instruction in the principles and practice of physical and mental health. Some schools accept responsibility for all three of these phases of a school health program; nevertheless, most of the schools leave major responsibility for the second step—securing correction—to homes and public health agencies. Frequently, however, organizational arrangements for such services are not successfully made between the schools on the one hand and health services on the other. For example, sometimes health services which are organized on a county basis find it difficult to accommodate themselves to the district system of schools. It seems fair to say that the present obstacles to adequate health services for children and youth include both inadequacy in the available provisions and also incomplete organizational arrangements for such services. The development of patterns for such co-operative relationships is one aspect of functional organization which needs early attention.

7. Extension of School Services for the Children of Employed Women

When our country began its mobilization for defense, the demand for women employees promptly increased. From January, 1941, to January, 1944, the number of women employed increased by approximately four million, or almost 30 per cent. Among other resulting social changes, this situation brought many problems to homes and families, among which was the provision of care for children not yet in school and for children of school age before and after school and on holidays. Such care was not available in most communities, and particularly so since the influx of defense-connected populations into industrial areas was stretching the facilities and services of even the most self-sufficient communities.

There grew up then the phenomenon of the door-key children, carrying their own keys with them, because no one was at home to welcome them. Truancy and delinquency increased; children's accidents and illness were widespread; absenteeism among women workers was a natural corollary.

As for the schools, they were all too frequently overcrowded. Besides, they traditionally served no children younger than five or six, and their hours were those typical throughout the country—nine to three or four, from Monday through Friday. But there began rather soon one of those rapid extensions of the usual school services to meet a special need which have characterized schools throughout their history. Extending their services downward to meet the needs of children from three to five in nursery schools, kindergartens, or child-care centers, and extending their school sessions to provide educational programs before and after school, on Saturdays and holidays and summer vacations, the public schools were

by August, 1944, providing these special services for 104,000 children of employed mothers.

The cessation of hostilities will not end the need for such services. There will still be large numbers of women employed. Returning servicemen may require time for physical and vocational rehabilitation. In fact, it would not be difficult to show that there has always been a need for such extensions of or additions to the regular services to meet the particular needs of special groups of children. The question involved is whether the public school system must restrict its services to those it can provide for all children, or whether it shall modify its structure to meet special groups' needs.

8. Transportation of School Children

One of the earliest restrictions on war-needed equipment to affect the schools was that on buses and other means of transportation. Under normal conditions between eight and ten thousand school buses are manufactured annually, but under recommendations of the Office of Defense Transportation only 427 new buses were released to schools by the War Production Board by January, 1944. Such a drastic curtailment has meant adjustment of many kinds: longer daily schedules for use of available equipment; extreme care in maintenance and repair; greater use of other means of transportation; survey of bus routes, resulting in elimination of some and shortening of others; shifting of buses from one community to another of greater need; training of school bus drivers in the interest of safer, more efficient, and more economical transportation; and the recruiting and training of school bus mechanics.

Another and very important result has been the inevitable assumption of more responsibility on the part of state departments of education for assisting the schools with their transportation difficulties. The Office of Defense Transportation rightly assumed that the schools were ready to adjust their activities as much as possible to assist in the conservation of needed transportation equipment, supplies, and personnel. It also assumed that the appropriate agency to help the schools accomplish this was the state department of education in each state. Therefore, ODT assigned considerable responsibility and authority to the state departments of education for carrying out programs of conservation mutually agreed on, more authority in fact than actually existed in the law of some of the states.

With the return to peace—and even before, in the release of war surpluses—there will again be transportation equipment available to schools. Whether it will be available to any and all that can pay for it or will be allotted on some plan of priority; whether it will be made to individual school districts' order or will be manufactured on some series of standard

specifications; whether the determination of bus routes will be left to individual school districts or will be made as part of a state system, properly co-ordinated with other districts' routes and planned to accompany and facilitate school district reorganization—all these are matters of policy closely related to and affecting the organization of a given state's school system. The possession of appropriate authority and competence to render such services in state departments of education is a matter of great importance in the years just ahead.

9. Restoration of Professional Services

Schools have been hard-pressed during the war to keep sufficient personnel to stay in operation. It is estimated that during the year 1943-44 the schools had 7,700 teaching positions unfilled. Not only that, but the same influences which draw teachers away from the schools also deflect them from teacher-training institutions, so that personnel shortages will not be only a temporary strain.

But shortages are not the whole problem. Schools have felt under obligation to keep running, by one device or another. Consequently they have lowered their standards in the selection of teachers, have given emergency certificates, have set aside their policies in respect to retirement so as to bring back many former teachers, and have shifted teachers away from their fields of training. In spite of the appreciation due those who have filled in during the emergency, it must be recognized that the war has caused schools to lose ground which they could barely afford to lose, in the matter of standards for teacher appointment. Completion of college as a minimum requirement had not approached national attainment, even before the war. These wartime years will have retarded the pace toward that goal to a considerable extent.

Such depletion of trained personnel is by no means limited to the teaching profession. Doctors, nurses, engineers, scientists, social workers, have all been subject to wartime requirements and attractions. Similarly, the rate of training of replacements and of securing professional experience has been materially interrupted. This means that the re-establishment of the technical and professional services necessary to maintain the high state of comfort and competence to which we are accustomed will take considerable time. Add to this the unsolved problem of uniform training and licensing or certification; the lack of reciprocity among states in some professional fields; the difficulties in attaining professional status and maintaining stable rates of pay; and, finally, the disruption of the colleges, due to wartime pressures, and it may easily be seen that the repair of the nation's professional and technical services will place on the educational system of the country a problem of great magnitude.

10. Participation in International Cultural Relations

As in other areas of its national life which are of potential international concern, the United States has so far kept pretty much to itself in educational affairs. The United States did not become a member of the International Bureau of Education, the one international education agency providing for formal governmental membership up to the outbreak of the present war. There have been many less formal opportunities for participation in international cultural relations—attendance at conferences, preparation of reports and descriptive materials for issuance in international publications, provision for the exchange of teachers and students. Some of these activities have been carried on under governmental sponsorship, others have resulted from the initiative of voluntary associations such as the New Education Fellowship and the World Federation of Education Associations.

It now seems that there will be a real need for greatly expanded opportunities for educational and cultural relationships on an international scale in the postwar years. There will be, for example, the need for prompt repair and rehabilitation of educational and cultural services and activities in the devastated areas. This does not depend entirely or even primarily on a humanitarian motive. There can be no economic sufficiency and stability in these countries until the processes of education are re-established and functioning to supply the trained personnel needed for all of each nation's concerns.

With devastation so complete, such re-establishment of educational opportunities may be a long time in accomplishment. Meantime, it is probable that very large numbers of persons will, with governmental sanction, seek opportunity for training in this country for greater service to their own. The guidance, placement, and education of these visitors will require a degree of wisdom and unselfishness which has not been called for to date in the comparatively small programs of student exchange underway. If the numbers are significant, their guidance and placement cannot be left to chance but must require some sort of organized service on a nation-wide and international basis. The formation of such a functioning international organization and participation in it will tax our best efforts, inexperienced as we are in developing and maintaining international mechanisms for co-operation.

IV. HOW THE PRESENT STRUCTURE OF PUBLIC EDUCATION DEVELOPED

It is obvious that in the solution of the problems of adjustment just enumerated some changes, possibly major changes, in the structure of public education will be necessary. Fortunately, "structure" need not be

static. The chief characteristic of the nation's educational system should be its adjustability to proven needs. Some of the characteristics of our present system, however, developed as they were to meet the needs of the times, have through the years proceeded from the status of the new and untried to *the accepted*, and then to *the fixed*. Certain features may no longer meet current needs. Since some of them may be challenged in a reorganization of public education to meet today's needs, several illustrations of "characteristics and how they grew" may be helpful.⁷

1. School Sessions and How They Developed

Accounts of schools of the early days clearly show that today's typical school schedules of "nine to four o'clock" and from September to May have not always been common. Summer terms and winter terms were the accepted practice during the colonial period and as late as the Civil War, while spring terms came somewhat later. The summer term, starting early in May or June and extending through the summer or early fall, was primarily for the younger children, because the older boys and some of the girls were needed to help at home and on the farm with the increased tasks which summer brought. The teacher was usually a woman; and the children, ranging in age from three years, whose mothers were glad to have them out of the way and under supervision, spent their time in learning to read, spell, and do simple arithmetic. In fact, the children who attended these reading schools were frequently called abecedarians. Winter school, on the other hand, catered especially to the needs of the older children, though the younger ones came as long as weather permitted. The winter term began when the fall farm-work was finished, in late November or early December, and continued until mid-spring. Taught by a schoolmaster, the winter term was open to all who would come, and young people in their early twenties came winter after winter to add to their store of learning.

At first, winter schools were in session every day from Monday through Saturday, with no generally accepted holidays, not even Christmas or New Year. Summer schools sometimes closed school on Saturday afternoon, or took all day every other Saturday. Independence Day, coming in mid-term, was their only holiday. The Saturday holiday, at first only a half-day and by the middle of the nineteenth century the whole day,

⁷ Warren Burton, *The District School as It Was*. Boston: Lee & Shepard, 1897.
Edgar Knight, *Education in the United States*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1941 (second revised edition).

Clifton Johnson, *The Country School*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., 1907.

Clifton Johnson, *Old Time Schools and School Books*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1904.

Walter Herbert Small, *Early New England Schools*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1914.

was so planned apparently for the convenience of the teacher. "Boarding round" was still common, and teachers needed some time for personal matters. Also, since Saturday afternoons had usually been spent on the catechism and Mondays on questioning children about the Sunday sermon, the omission of religious instruction from public schools in the early part of the nineteenth century may have left its effect also on the length of the school week, especially in eliminating the Saturday-afternoon session. Even then the daily sessions were long. Colonial schools held from seven in the morning until five in the afternoon in summer months, from eight to four during the winter. These long sessions were thought to be particularly necessary in communities which depended on "moving schools" coming to them for regular but brief terms.

As moving schools gave way to permanent schools, considerations of cost often affected the length of term. If a community must provide *several* schools for a full term instead of one full term divided among several sections of the community, the public budget had to be extended. Though many communities were able to afford a year-round school, many could not, and gradually the accepted practice became a session extending from early fall to as late in the spring as a community could afford, at the same time that the daily sessions were gradually but steadily shortened.

Now we face the question as to whether the needs of children and adults for educational services can be met by sessions designed for social and economic conditions so different from those of today. Specifically, do most children and youth up to eighteen years of age profit by a three or four months vacation each year? Are there learning experiences from which children and youth would profit which must be gained away from the school building, but for which the school should properly take responsibility? Do the typical school hours from nine to three or four o'clock for five days in the week, adequately care for the needs of children and youth of different ages, home backgrounds, occupational interests, and health differences? Have the accelerated programs in the high schools and colleges, in which young people have participated during wartime, given any indication of changes in yearly schedules which would be desirable from the standpoint of students' interests and capacities, as well as from that of economy in the length of the training period?

In other words, when should schools be in session, to serve effectively and economically the needs of the persons for whom they are planned?

2. The Schools' Clientele, and How It Has Changed

The public school system of today, offering educational opportunities freely to children, youth, and adults has been the result of slow but con-

tinuous growth. Even the *idea* of education at public expense, slow to develop in England and equally slow in her colonies, took much of the Colonial period to gain wide acceptance. But, first for children and youth of elementary-school needs, and beginning in the 1820's for those of secondary-school status, the foundations were laid broad and strong for a system of public education. To be sure there have been limitations, the removal of each of which—on opportunities for girls, for example—has represented a test of the principle.

Further extensions have come with the years, so that now more than half of the students enrolled in colleges and universities and in technical and professional schools are in institutions under public control. Such opportunities are not "free" to the same extent as are those for elementary- and secondary-school students. There are fees and tuition charges, as well as living expenses for those students not fortunate enough to live near the college. Furthermore, depriving his family of the money he might be earning, keeps many a college student from going on with his training.

Educational opportunities at public expense for adults past the age of compulsory education have not been easy to attain, though they were provided now and then even in Colonial days for those adults who wished to learn to read and write. Furthermore, the extension of educational opportunities downward to children below the compulsory school age is a battle still going on in some whole states and in many communities. Kindergarten associations beginning more than a hundred years ago, and nursery-school agencies of the last twenty years, have steadily sought the development of appropriate educational opportunities for children of five, four, and three years of age. Enrolments of children of these ages in public schools is still a minor fraction of the total, only one in five of even the five-year-olds being in kindergarten. Indeed, state laws sometimes prohibit and frequently restrict the development of educational programs for children below the age of six.

It appears, therefore, that there are as yet distinct gaps in the structure of American education if the goal is to provide, even though at varying degrees of public expense, appropriate educational opportunities for all who will make use of them. During which years, or to what age or educational level should attendance at school be compulsory? Is it to the age of fourteen, as in three states; fifteen, as in one state; sixteen, as in thirty-three states; seventeen, as in six states; or eighteen, as in five states? Is education really free to boys and girls who live in the country and must live away from home during the school year if they are to attend school? Is it essential in a democracy to extend free educational opportunities only so high and so fast as they can be offered to all who wish to use them,

or is some selective principle feasible? Can the same measure of public support for elementary and secondary education reasonably be expected at the same time that our population becomes increasingly adult, with a steadily decreasing number of households directly related to or touched by the schools? Is it reasonable to expect that, in the future, school enrolments of children, youth, and adults in any given school system will mirror the changing proportion of each group in the total population? Or, in other words, will the American school system continue to adjust to a changing clientele?

3. What Makes Up the "School Plant"?

The character of the school plant has changed during the years with the changing concept of what learning involves. When getting an education meant acquiring the information and wisdom contained in books, a room in which students could sit quietly and read those books was sufficient—hence those bare rooms filled with benches and copying desks which comprise our pictures of early schools.

The conscientious effort to make public education truly free has changed the appearance of those rooms. First came globes, blackboards, maps, writing charts, and other "teaching equipment" at public expense, though children still supplied their own textbooks and work materials. Now considerable progress has been made in every state toward the goal of providing the tools and materials to students free of charge.⁸

Further, the development of practices based on the principle of learning through doing has added variety to the types of classrooms. Laboratories, workshops, art and music rooms, gymnasiums, auditoriums, home-making units, all bear witness to the schools' effort to provide situations appropriate to new learning needs as they develop.

Nor is expansion in the types of classrooms the only way which school systems have found for extending new educational opportunities to children and young people. During these war years, especially, great numbers of schools have had gardens—owned, rented or donated—under their supervision. Schools have also operated canneries and have thus aided materially in conserving food, in improving diets, and in establishing school lunch programs.

Other extensions of the usual school plant, taken from inventories of school property, show such variations as these: radio stations owned and operated by the schools in New York, Cleveland, Chicago, and San

⁸ Maris M. Proffitt, *State Provisions for Free Textbooks and Instructional Materials*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 1, 1944. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

Francisco; farms for agricultural training owned by the Detroit Board of Education, by Newton High School in Elmhurst, New York, Quakertown High School in Quakertown, Pennsylvania, Racine County High School in Rochester, Wisconsin, Sanford High School in Sanford, Florida, De la Howe High School in McCormick, South Carolina, Tolleson High School in Tolleson, Arizona, Kern County High School in Bakersfield, California, Santa Maria Union High School in Santa Maria, California, and a number of state and county agricultural schools offering agricultural subjects of less than college grade. In St. Louis and Detroit, children's museums are operated by the schools. Camps are operated by the schools of Battle Creek, Michigan, Columbia, Indiana, and Los Angeles, California.

Such innovations as these encourage speculation as to what types of school property are needed to provide for both the individual and social needs of children and youth. Inevitably the question must be raised as to whether provision for all these varied learning opportunities, in addition to *a seat in a classroom for every student at the same time*, is either possible or desirable. Possibly through rotation of schedules ways can be found to provide the variety of instructional situations needed at no greater cost than for the present typical arrangement.

V. SUMMARY

These brief illustrations show how changes have come about in such important aspects of the public school system as its time schedule, its physical characteristics, and its clientele. Succeeding chapters of this volume will point out other fundamental changes in the structure of American education which need to be made soon if education is to serve effectively in our democracy.

CHAPTER II

CHANGES NEEDED IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION TO PROVIDE FOR SPECIAL GROUPS

BESS GOODYKOONTZ AND COLLABORATORS

During this current school year around thirty million students are attending school in this country, counting all students and all schools. Naturally the schools differ widely since, according to our American ideals for education, they are under obligation to provide the wide variety of educational opportunities needed by this large segment of the total population. Whether young or of mature years, whether living in the country or in one of the nation's largest cities, whether using his study for the immediate purpose of a job or for intellectual stimulation as a refreshment from wartime strain, every person has a right to expect that the sort of education he needs will be available. So run current educational objectives, and to a very considerable extent they are paralleled by public opinion.

Such a large student population is subject to subdivision into groups of students having similar needs. Appropriate instructional programs for all of them sometimes require new types of classes, different equipment, a change in school schedule, or any one of a number of adjustments in physical arrangements or organization. Such adjustments for special groups may be illustrated by reference to language classes for non-English-speaking children in the schools of many communities.

Each year thousands of children start to school who do not speak or understand English. In the southwest they are largely children of Mexican descent. In other parts of the country there are large numbers of children whose first language is Polish, Italian, Russian, Japanese, or Chinese. These children of foreign speech tend to be concentrated in certain parts of the country or in certain sections of the communities in which they live. Since the use of English is necessary before they can undertake the same school activities with which English-speaking children begin school, and since learning to speak English is a goal which ranks high in their parents' hopes for the first years at school, some school systems have found it desirable to teach these children the language and customs of their neighbors for a year or a semester before they are enrolled in regular classes. This is common practice in some school

systems of the southwest, where Spanish-speaking children in large numbers come to school. A type of junior-primary, or a two-year first grade, has therefore become fairly standard practice in these communities.

In this chapter the special needs of a number of different groups are considered. Some of them are very large groups; some are fairly new claimants to the school's attention; each is important. For each group the purpose has been to define in some detail the educational needs in so far as they differ from those of the total school group; next, to analyze the problems that now exist and to note the difficulties involved in securing adequate facilities; and finally, to present recommendations for improving the situation, with emphasis on changes needed in the present patterns of school organization.

I

PROVIDING FOR THE CARE AND TRAINING OF PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Traditionally schools have begun their instructional services with the six-year-old children, or at best with kindergartens for five-year-olds. But something has happened in our thinking in the last twenty years so that now the idea of younger children going to school seems not so strange. Indeed, if we accept the point of view of education as a process of child development, it appears strange to begin a child's formal education as late as six years of age. The fairly rapid acceptance of the new idea is shown by the fact that many cities are now operating nursery schools as a regular part of their public school systems. Also, in recent months there has been a considerable increase in the number of articles in professional journals on problems related to nursery schools. But actually only a beginning has been made in meeting the total need for this kind of service under the auspices of the schools. The changing pattern of family life bespeaks a continuing increase in the demand for school care of children in advance of the traditional school-entering age. The adjustments in prevailing forms of school organization which these new services require are described in the section which follows.

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Studies of human development, especially since World War I, have revealed the importance of training practices in babyhood and early

childhood from the point of view of every phase of human growth and development. Moreover, the earlier our educational program begins, the greater the school's opportunity to influence developmental tendencies at what is usually considered the beginning school age. If family consultation service and parent-education programs are set up to help parents deal with the problems of infancy and babyhood as well as those of early and later childhood, such services strengthen rather than weaken the home and family influence on the educational progress of the child. They make the parents more aware of the effect of parental behavior patterns and home guidance upon the child's health and growth throughout life. They should also contribute to good home-school relationships which if established early can more easily be maintained throughout the entire school life of the child.¹

It is becoming increasingly difficult for even the best modern home to provide the environment, companionship, and guidance essential to personality development after the age of two, or the period of infancy. Space and equipment for child activities are frequently limited, especially in urban communities; an industrial age makes for a hazardous environment which requires close adult supervision; and the typical small family limits the average child's opportunities for companionship and deprives him of the benefits of close association with his peer group. In other words, it is not so much a question of whether we shall extend educational opportunities downward to include public nursery schools and kindergartens, but of how this problem can best be met.

Although the American schools have experimented with preschool education for a long period of time, they have been extremely slow to accept their full responsibility for the education of children under six years of age. But the idea of education for the child under six was beginning to be widely accepted in the United States in the decade between 1920 and 1930. Parents and teachers alike were learning more about the importance of the early years of life and the need to help young children to adjust to their own age group and to situations outside their homes. During the depression years of the 1930's, nursery schools were brought more prominently to public attention when the Federal Government made funds available to establish nursery schools for the children of families on relief. By 1936 the United States Office of Education had reports of approximately 2,400 nursery schools, including both public and private.

¹ "Four- and Five-year-olds at School." General Service Bulletin of the Association of Childhood Education. Washington: Association for Childhood Education, 1943.

"Healthful Living for Children." Bulletin of the Association for Childhood Education. Washington: Association for Childhood Education, 1944.

Small progress was made, however, in the provision of nursery schools as a part of the regular public school system under state and local support.

Now again in this war emergency, nursery schools have been found a particularly good answer to the need for care of the children of mothers employed in war activities. More than 1,400 nursery schools or, as they frequently are called, child-care centers, enrolling nearly 40,000 pre-school children were in operation by July, 1944, providing a typical nursery-school program for children whose mothers are so employed. Financed through federal funds and fees paid by parents, these centers operate for the most part directly under the boards of education of local school systems. In many cases they are an integral part of the school system, utilizing such generally available services as those of the school doctor, school nurse, the school cafeteria, the school principal, and others. These child-care centers or nursery schools frequently serve children three, four, and five years of age in the same center. They thus provide what is typically known in many schools as kindergarten service for the five-year-old children. Inadequate service in some places, and duplication of service in others, is still one of the school's difficult administrative problems. Also, though we have recognized the desirability of kindergartens as an integral part of the public school system for over a hundred years, not more than one-fourth of the children of five years of age are now in kindergarten and most of these are in the larger urban centers.

Only those with a very limited educational vision would contend that the present is not an opportune time to extend educational opportunities to younger children. Our allies have realized the importance of immediate national action. Great Britain has found the nursery school so valuable in getting children off to a good start that in England they are requiring all local communities to provide nursery schools wherever needed, and have made kindergarten attendance compulsory. Russia, too, is providing year-round kindergartens for children of from three to seven years of age.

I. CHANGES REQUIRED IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

a. Preschool Legislation Will Be Necessary. With one exception, Florida, present state legislation does not provide specifically for nursery schools. Moreover, although there are laws providing for kindergartens in forty-two states and the District of Columbia and kindergartens have been construed as permissible under the general terms of the laws of all but two of the other six states, only five states have mandatory kindergarten laws and only towns and cities must provide free kindergartens in some of these. We must remember, however, that the present age limits of compulsory school attendance are the product of many years of development. Changes in a school system come as the community expresses

its needs for changes and new services. School administrators rely on the taxpayer's support in moving ahead to develop services for young children. Pressure to extend the services for children downward may come from only a small group of parents until the citizens in the community are informed and will favor an expenditure involving public funds to establish these services. If we believe that these opportunities for children should be provided, it is necessary to educate whole communities to give support and backing to local boards of education in extending public education downward to meet the needs of very young children.

b. Nursery Schools and Kindergartens or Similar School Units for Three- to Five-year-old Children Should Be Organized as Parts of the Elementary School. The elementary school, which is the first major unit of the school organization, should extend its program from the nursery school and kindergarten through the period of childhood, or at least through the sixth grade. Specifically, the elementary-school unit may have the following divisions:

Nursery-kindergarten unit.....	ages 3 through 5
Primary unit	ages 6, 7, and 8
Intermediate unit.....	ages 9, 10, and 11

Each of the above-mentioned units or divisions within the elementary school should be divided into classroom groups including children of approximately the same social, mental, and physical background without regard to age and grade lines. For example, in the preschool units children have always progressed according to their own ability and rate of learning. In the newer primary units each child progresses at his own speed, so that if he needs more than three years he may take an additional year or more to complete what we usually think of as the primary grades. A few schools are trying the same plan even for the higher elementary grades.

c. Placement and Grouping Should Be Flexible. Since some children mature much more rapidly than others, we need flexible plans for placement and grouping of children and a continuous progress plan within organization units which have an average range of three or more years. This keeps children and teachers thinking in terms of needs and interests of individual growth rather than in terms of promotions and failures. In fact there should be neither annual, semiannual, nor quarterly promotions, but provisions for children to be transferred to another group at any time of the year when a better adjustment can be found. Grade lines are eliminated and adjustments made on a basis of a child's ability to live and work successfully with a group. Teachers are continuously evaluating each child's physical, social, and intellectual maturity in order to prevent failures by adjusting the activities and materials to the experiences of each learner.

d. Time Schedules Vary with Individual and Group Needs. Flexible school organization and informal grouping requires much co-operative planning of daily and weekly schedules—between teachers, between rooms, between children within each room, and between home and school. And, as community groups become more sensitive to the ways of children and the experiences they need, there will be community-wide planning—not only *for* the children, but *with* the children, and by groups of children, youth, and adults who are concerned with community as well as school improvement.

The tentative daily and weekly schedules so planned will not be the same for all groups within an administrative unit nor for all individuals within a class group. The developmental level of the children and their particular problems and activities will determine general time allotments. For example, nursery-school and kindergarten children may in some cases be better served by part-day sessions on every day, including Saturday, than by the usual school day.

e. Nursery Schools and Kindergartens Have Special Staff Problems. While the number of children assigned to each teacher will vary with the level taught, the maximum number should probably not exceed ten in the younger preschool group. Although the size of the school unit will determine the total number of teachers needed, at least two adults will be needed in each preschool group at all times. Adequate counseling services should also be made available, to both teachers and parents, in order to safeguard the social and emotional adjustments of children and to develop their finest personalities.

Wise guidance in early childhood is so important that teacher-training institutions and in-service educational agencies should devote more attention to this period. State departments of education should have the authority to establish and maintain appropriate standards for the certification and training of teachers of children under six. While they will differ from those for teachers of older children, all teachers should have at least four years of cultural and professional courses which are integrated through observation of children in different situations; through participation in home, school, and community life; and through full-time responsible teaching for as long as the students' needs and the situation make an extension of experience desirable. Such training will include experiences in assuming partnership with parents in meeting the whole day's needs of the child, utilizing the guidance of specialists in solving children's problems, and working with community agencies and organizations in planning for the education and welfare of all the communities' children.

f. Housing of Preschool Groups Is Important. Very young children, especially, need schools that are located in safe, quiet spots, with adequate

space for all the necessities of healthy, efficient group living and learning. Wherever possible, there should be several acres of ground with a shady, grassy lawn; a wooded glen and stream for wild animal and plant life; gardens for flowers, fruits, and vegetables; ample and well-equipped playgrounds; and an outdoor wading and swimming pool.

All school buildings should be home-like but individual in type. Some may be of the cottage style. Recent experiments in designing facilities for young children have resulted in roomy, home-type buildings, rather than what we frequently think of as a typical school structure. Within there will be large, attractive, comfortable, and well-equipped rooms for each classroom group, kitchen and dining space, quiet sleeping quarters, and a bathroom equipped with showers and hot and cold water.

g. Travel Distance Is Important. The younger the children, the more important travel distance is as a factor in school organization. Sometimes the desire to have an efficient school attendance unit, with elementary and secondary units together, has led to serious consequences for young children. Elementary-school units should be organized with minimum travel distances on roads that can be used throughout the year. It is inadvisable to require the younger children to spend more than an hour per day in transit between home and school. In many communities this will mean more and smaller school units for the younger children. In the more sparsely populated rural areas it may be necessary for the nursery, kindergarten, and primary units to be maintained near the homes of the children.

h. Parent Education Is an Integral Part of Nursery-School Programs. Parents as well as children should be regarded as members of a nursery school. One of the purposes for which the nursery school exists is to give parents an opportunity to see their children in relation to other children, to learn to understand them, to gain confidence in the normalcy of their offspring and in their own ability to guide their development.

Parents should be encouraged to participate in the activities of the nursery school, and books and materials on child care should be available for them to read and to discuss together. Many parents will then come to feel that the things they themselves learn about the child are almost as valuable as the daily experiences of the child in the school.

II. CONCLUSION

Today, with the exception of a few privileged centers, our provisions for the education of younger children lag far behind what we really know about their needs. It is generally believed by competent scientists that most children who have good food and good training in early childhood make good citizens, and that through these two means the quality of

American life can be definitely raised. This period of rapid educational change is an opportune time to break with outworn traditions and make such structural changes in our educational system as will provide for the fullest development of all of America's children from birth to maturity.

II

PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN IN REGULARLY ORGANIZED SCHOOLS

It is widely recognized that the school activities of crippled children or of deaf or blind children must be different in some respects from those of physically normal children. It has been more difficult to take proper precautions for those children whose physical difficulties are less apparent—the anemic, the tuberculous, and others of reduced vitality. In the great majority of school districts facilities and services cannot be provided within the regularly organized schools to meet the special needs of the exceptional groups. On the other hand, some school systems have made distinct modifications in the school program for all of these children—modifications based primarily on types of activity, on rate of work and amount of effort required, and on the inclusion of remedial measures. To provide adequate educational opportunities for all such children in the nation's schools, the co-operation of individual schools and school systems and of state educational agencies will be required. In the following section Miss Martens and collaborators describe the measures in representative school systems to provide appropriate types of training for special groups.

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There is in every community a considerable number of children and youth who are in serious need of some adjustment in the existing school organization. If they are fortunate enough to live in a state or in a district in which suitable adjustments are made for them, their happiness and effectiveness as American citizens may be safeguarded. If, on the other hand, conformity to a rigid pattern of organization is required, the groundwork is being laid for misguided use of capacities, wasteful idleness, or even extreme social maladjustment, delinquency, and crime.

It is to avoid such waste and catastrophe in human lives that special provisions for children and youth with unusual problems have found a place in our educational thinking and practice. It is to the credit of American citizens that we have gone as far as we have. It is to our discredit that we cannot point to a universal appreciation of the seriousness of the situation throughout the country or to organized programs to meet it in its entirety. Many changes are still to be effected in the structure of American education before equality of educational opportunity can be claimed for the mentally and physically handicapped, for the emotionally unstable and socially maladjusted, or for the intellectual giants and talented young people in our homes and communities. Particularly as they face the difficult problems of postwar adjustments, these groups will need guidance not only during their elementary years but also in the secondary and even the postsecondary periods, in order that they may take their rightful places in the social structure of a democracy that is recovering from the cataclysmic effects of a world war.

All of these groups, because of lack of better terminology, are known as "exceptional" or "atypical" children and youth. They are the ones with special problems that the schools are responsible for meeting. We have for more than twenty-five years given lip service to the principle of providing for individual needs through the school program; but we have failed to put into effect the practical changes required to make that principle function. The fault has been partly that of society in not providing the tangible support necessary to put desirable school programs into action; but it has been perhaps equally that of educators who have not seen the total problem or sought to find ways of coping with it. Organized and persistent efforts to bring about desirable changes have been successful in many other fields of social endeavor. They can be equally successful in bringing to realization full educational opportunity for the four or five millions of exceptional children and youth in our communities today.

The fact that all these types of children, including the gifted and talented, are considered together in this section does not necessarily imply the desirability of grouping them under the same administrative or supervisory direction in a public school system. The purpose of this chapter is to call attention to the needs of special groups and to the importance of making provision for them through some type of structural organization. Whether that organization shall take the form of a single bureau or department serving all groups, or whether it shall provide different channels of service for the respective types of exceptional children is a matter to be determined in terms of the total school organization. Special curricular adjustments for gifted children, for example, are more often furnished through the regular elementary and secondary branches

of the school system than through a special bureau. Mentally handicapped children are not always under the same supervisory or administrative direction as are the physically handicapped. The important point is that *all* exceptional groups be adequately served, however the details of organization may vary under different circumstances.

I. SOME CHANGING CONCEPTS AND TRENDS

Assumption of responsibility by the state for the education of exceptional children in the United States began more than a century ago with the establishment of residential institutions for the deaf, the blind, the delinquent, and the mentally deficient. At a much later date—about the turn of the century—special classes in the day schools were inaugurated, but not until 1920 or thereabouts was there a widespread activity in this phase of the program. The past twenty-five years have been marked by developments in the conduct of such classes that may well be significant in pointing the way for future progress. Among these developments one should note the following:

a. Integration with Total School Program. When “special” classes and schools for handicapped children were first given a recognized place in the day-school program, they were very definitely *special* and *separate* from the rest of the school or school system. Segregation on an all-day basis was for most handicapped groups the procedure deemed necessary to meet the learning difficulties or other disabilities of the children served. Today the emphasis is upon participation by exceptional children in the total program of the school and in those activities of regular classes in which they can work with profit. It is increasingly recognized that the exceptional child has many needs which are identical with the needs of normal children. Separation for special instruction or treatment is, therefore, recommended only as the child’s exceptional problem demands it. It is not unusual to find a group of handicapped children receiving such special instruction for part of the day and taking their places with other children the rest of the day in various types of activities.²

To be sure, there are still separately organized special schools, and these have an important place particularly in large city school systems or as residential institutions serving a regional area or an entire state. But even here the intention is to separate the child from his “normal” companions only as long as he needs the special attention provided by the special school which is unavailable in the regular schools of the community to which he belongs. In other words, “special education” is not synonymous with “isolation,” but connotes adjustment measures suited

² John W. Tenny, “Adjustment of Special-class Pupils to Regular Classes,” *Journal of Exceptional Children*, VIII (February, 1942), 144–49, 160.

to the needs of the child, whether he continues as a member of the regular group or is assigned to a special group or school for instruction or treatment.

b. Continuity of the Program. Twenty-five years ago a specially organized group for handicapped pupils on the secondary level was almost unheard of in local school systems, though a few farsighted educational administrators were already at that time encouraging such a practice. In 1940, there were more than 26,000 exceptional pupils reported in special groups on the secondary level.³ With present-day acceptance of the broad function of the high school to serve *all* adolescent youth, instead of only the intellectually or economically favored, one finds a widespread interest in the adaptation of the secondary-school curriculum to meet the needs of pupils who are exceptional in one way or another. Reports recently issued by the National Education Association indicate the extent to which this interest has developed in the case of intellectually superior and of slow-learning pupils. Similar studies are needed in relation to the physically handicapped.

As the program for exceptional pupils has reached up into the high school, so it has also in recent years reached down to the nursery-school level. Nursery schools and kindergartens for deaf, blind, or crippled children are maintained in some day schools, in some residential schools, and in some hospital schools. The objective is to help the child to begin to make needed social adjustments at as early an age as possible and to learn the ways of getting along with other children.

Both these developments in special education, reaching up to the high-school level on the one hand, and down to the nursery school on the other hand, emphasize the importance of *continuity* in the program. Beginning early and continuing throughout the elementary and secondary years, special adjustments should be available all along the line to every child who needs them. We are beginning to realize that such continuity is absolutely essential to the effectiveness of the service we are trying to render.

c. Educational Functions of State Institutions. State residential schools for the deaf, the blind, the mentally deficient, and the delinquent began as eleemosynary or custodial institutions. Definite progress has been made in emphasizing their educational functions. In the case of state schools for the deaf and the blind, this emphasis has been so great as to cause state legislatures to transfer the administration of an increasing number of them to state educational authorities. By 1944, almost 50

³ Elise H. Martens and Emery M. Foster, *Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children, 1939-40*. United States Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1938-40. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

per cent of them were operating under such auspices or with definite provision for co-operative relationship with them. Training schools for delinquent youth are still for the most part under the administrative control of state institutional or welfare agencies, but many of them are seeking earnestly to develop their educational programs, in some cases with the advice and support of state educational agencies. Institutions for the mentally deficient or feeble-minded have primarily a custodial responsibility for a large proportion of their population, but in many of these, too, educational programs are in operation for those who can profit by instruction.

d. Occupational Adjustment of the Handicapped. The war has made us more than ever aware of the employment possibilities of physically handicapped people. They have found their places in wartime industries and are thereby making distinct contributions to the war program. Many of the mentally handicapped, too, are giving good performance within their limitations, both in civilian service and some, not too seriously handicapped, even in the armed forces. At a time when all available manpower and womanpower are required, we are thus finding a hitherto untapped reservoir of strength that merits very serious consideration in connection with postwar plans. The war has taught us how much our educational structure lacks in this respect. Occupational adjustment is one of the most important needs of the handicapped. Schools are beginning to recognize their great responsibility and their opportunity for guiding and preparing every handicapped pupil to serve in keeping with his capabilities. Co-operative programs of well-chosen school-work experiences may be just as effective in the guidance of the handicapped as in the guidance of so-called "normal" students.

e. Provisions for State-wide Organization and Supervision. In 1920 there were just four states—Wisconsin, Connecticut, Wyoming, and New York—in which there had been appointed in the state education department a staff member whose chief responsibility was to promote and to supervise day-school programs for the education of exceptional children. In 1944 there were twenty-five states in which one or more state educational officials were giving full time or part time to such duties. This development has been one of the three major ways in which the state is increasingly meeting its obligation toward exceptional children. The other two grow out of state legislation (a) authorizing or requiring local school districts to make special adjustments for specified types of exceptional children and (b) providing financial participation by the state in meeting the extra cost involved in such adjustments. In states in which all three of these steps have been taken, and in which, in addition, state residential schools for the deaf and the blind (and in a few states training

schools for delinquents) have been brought into the total educational structure, an integration of purposes and practices can be achieved which promises well for a continuing, co-ordinated program on a state-wide basis.

II. SOME EXAMPLES OF OPERATING PROGRAMS

With these five major developments in mind, let us look at a few of the programs that are under way. Since special education in the local school systems began in and is still for the most part limited to the cities, we shall see first what has happened in one of the many urban communities in which educational leaders have developed effective plans of meeting the needs of atypical children. Then we shall look at a county program designed to reach the children in rural areas; and finally at a state program operating through the state education department and reaching into every community of the state.

a. A City Program. Rochester, New York, has a population of approximately 335,000 with about 35,600 elementary- and high-school pupils. It was one of the first cities to establish (in 1906) a child-study laboratory and, with it, a special class for mentally retarded children. In the almost forty years intervening since that time, its educational officials have been committed to understanding the individual needs of children and to providing suitable educational programs for all abilities. They consider as vital to the successful functioning of any special educational program the following requisites: (a) school-health and child-study services for individual problems; (b) qualified administrative and supervisory leadership; (c) qualified special-education teachers; (d) co-operation with health and social agencies in the community.

All special-education classes in Rochester are an integral part of the elementary, high, and trade schools in which they are located. The organization of classes is premised on the values of grouping together children of similar learning ability, physical maturity, and social interests. Individual adjustments for pupils with physical limitations are made when they enter high school. All exceptional pupils share in the general school activities with their age-groups. The children for whom special instruction or treatment is organized on either full-time or part-time schedules are: (a) the seriously retarded; (b) the partially seeing; (c) the hard of hearing; (d) the speech defective; (e) orthopedic cases; (f) children of lowered vitality; (g) children needing home or hospital instruction during a period of long convalescence from physical ailment. Provision for the enrichment of the curriculum is made for unusually bright children through instructional supervision in elementary and secondary schools. Behavior problems are handled through adjustment

measures of clinic and school without organizing special classes to serve their particular needs.

The Department of Child Study and Special Education in Rochester includes in its personnel one director, one assistant director, two supervisors, thirteen psychologists, one audiometric examiner, a half-time ophthalmologist and otologist, a consulting psychiatrist one day per week, and fifty-four special-education teachers. Contributing services are rendered to the work of this department by the three co-ordinate departments of visiting teachers, attendance, and school-health service.

Special education in relation to curriculum, methods, and equipment is co-ordinated with the elementary- and high-school divisions. In addition to the special-education teachers noted, five teachers of classes for orthopedic cases and two teachers of classes for children with lowered vitality are under the supervision of the elementary department.

Those who are responsible for the Rochester program believe that its basic structure is sound. They see, however, a number of directions in which it should be further developed. Children do not receive adequate attention during the formative preschool years, a large number of problems not being recognized soon enough. Limitation in personnel and physical facilities in the several school districts makes it impossible to serve all the children of lowered vitality who need attention. Available means for detecting visual defects are insufficient. Program-making, counseling, and prevocational training for the physically handicapped at the secondary level need revision and strengthening. The school has no program of school-work experiences, job placement, or follow-up for either mentally or physically handicapped. Gifted children, while recognized and assisted through child-study and visiting-teacher services, are not served adequately through the present plan of enrichment in the regular grade organization. Greater co-ordination of special education with the elementary- and high-school divisions is desirable. Not *all* grade teachers nor *all* principals have had sufficient training in mental hygiene to enable them to appreciate problems of the child with a handicap. Thus even with the effective program carried on in Rochester, it is realized that some changes in the educational structure of the school system are needed in order that *all* exceptional children may be reached with optimum programs.

b. A County Program. The state of Pennsylvania includes in its special-education program provision for thirty-eight county supervisors who work under the direction of county superintendents. Their duties are to locate and examine the needs of all types of exceptional children, to plan suitable school adjustments for them, to supervise their instruction, and to assist with county testing and promotion problems. Their service is

predominantly to small schools. In Fayette County, for example, where the county supervisor was appointed in 1941, a preliminary survey showed a school enrolment of approximately 33,000 children, with 1,060 teachers in thirty-eight school districts, and with almost one hundred one-room schools.

In such a situation one of the most important problems the county supervisor must meet is to plan for the education of exceptional children in regular classes. This necessitates the training of teachers in service in order to bring about a better understanding of children's problems whether of an intellectual, a physical, or an emotional nature, and to develop skill in using available materials and desirable methods of instruction. In the large districts special classes for the mentally retarded have been established.

The county supervisor in Fayette County calls attention to the great importance of co-ordinating all the services available to children in the area affected. Special consideration is given to the problems of child guidance, with representatives of the schools, the churches, the social agencies, the law enforcement bodies, the professions, the business and industrial interests, the service clubs, the youth organizations, and the civic groups of the county all participating in efforts to prevent and to control juvenile delinquency. Child guidance centers have been organized in different parts of the county to help in the solution of children's behavior difficulties.

In this county program, as in the city of Rochester, the need is recognized for a broadened preparation of *all* teachers in the detection and treatment of special problems of children. The lack of understanding and vision on the part of both teachers and parents are handicaps to the program. Adequate physical examinations are not provided for all children. Materials with which to work are limited. As a means, however, of helping teachers in rural districts to grow in the understanding of children as individuals with different abilities, attitudes, interests, and experiences, a county program such as the state of Pennsylvania has instituted should be an effective part of the educational structure. It is the only one of its kind in existence at this time.

c. A State Program. Ohio is one of the twenty-five states in which a state supervisory program for the education of handicapped children is in operation. Its special-education law was originally written in 1921. It provides for a kind of partnership between the state and the local school district in furnishing special education for physically handicapped children of "sound mind." Under present arrangements, the local district pays the same amount per pupil in both regular and special classes, while the state is obligated to pay the additional cost of the special pro-

visions for handicapped children, but not to exceed \$200 per pupil per year. In addition, the cost of maintenance for each nonresident pupil may be paid up to \$250 per year;⁴ and a similar allowance is made for necessary transportation. The total state budget for special education in local public schools has recently amounted to about \$630,000 per year.

Practically every deaf and every blind child "of sound mind" is being educated in either a public school class or in a residential school. It is estimated that approximately 90 per cent of the crippled children needing special education, about 80 per cent of the partially seeing, and not more than 25 per cent of the hard-of-hearing children are beneficiaries of the state plan. Other groups of handicapped children are not yet included in the state's program of support, though local school districts are in many cases maintaining special provisions for them.

The administration and supervision of the state program of special education in local public schools are in the hands of the Division of Special Education of the State Department of Education. This division is staffed by a director, a supervisor of orthopedic classes, a supervisor of classes for the deaf and hard of hearing, two half-time supervisors of Braille and sight-saving classes, a supervisor of physical therapy, and two psychologists. Each supervisor maintains close contact with the children in his special field, with the focus of thinking always on the best adjustment possible for the child.

One of the arrangements found effective for rural children is the organization of county or regional units to serve pupils from an entire county or from several adjoining counties. In such cases, transportation is furnished by the state on either a daily or weekly basis as required, and for boarding nonresident children during the school week.

In addition to the programs of local school systems, there are in Ohio, as in practically every other state, publicly supported residential schools for the deaf, the blind, the delinquent, and the mentally deficient. The first two named were placed under the supervision of the State Department of Education in 1927, "having been one-hundred years in finding their proper place."⁵ Separate appropriations are made for them, and their superintendents are directly responsible to the chief state school officer. Whatever co-ordination obtains with the Division of Special Education is worked out on a co-operative basis.

Like a city school system, so any state faces a number of problems in the improvement of its special-education program. Ohio's greatest prob-

⁴ For the present biennium this sum has been raised, by amendment to the appropriation act, to \$312 per year because of the higher cost of living.

⁵ *Auditor's Annual Report, Ohio, 1928*, p. 160.

lem at present is reported in connection with slow-learning children. No state support being furnished for the excess cost involved in their education, whatever is done for them in the state is undertaken locally, and not more than 20 or 25 per cent of the children in serious need of placement in special classes are reached by these means. In addition to these more serious cases, there are many of somewhat higher intelligence who need special adjustments in regular classes. Similarly the large number of speech-defective children and other groups not now served by the state program receive only the special help made available through local arrangements.

Another problem considered serious in Ohio is the existence of inequalities in the administration of the present law. The per capita cost of education varies considerably for different types of physically handicapped children. Crippled children need physiotherapy as well as special instructional provisions, and the deaf and the blind can be handled only in small groups. The uniform maximum of \$200 in state aid is therefore not equally applicable to all groups.

d. Other Programs. If space permitted, many other city and state programs for the education of exceptional children might be described, some having a long history, others of recent origin.⁶ The state program longest in operation is in Wisconsin, the newest one in Oregon. The latter was inaugurated by legislative action in 1943, when provisions were made for state subsidy and supervision for (a) deaf and hard of hearing; (b) blind and partially seeing; (c) speech defective; (d) crippled and cardiopathic; (e) maladjusted because of extreme learning problems exclusive of mental retardation. State reimbursement is for the excess cost involved up to one and one-half times the per capita cost of educating nonhandicapped children in the school district. State administrative and supervisory personnel consist of the director of the program and three supervisory assistants.

A somewhat different, yet related, development was consummated in 1944 in Michigan, where a state supervisory program for exceptional children had its inception in 1923 and has expanded its area of service from time to time. To help curb the growing menace of juvenile delin-

⁶ Elizabeth M. Kelly, "Organization of Special Classes To Fit the Needs of Different Ability Groupings," *American Journal of Mental Deficiency*, XLVIII (July, 1943), 80-86.

Carrie B. Levy, "Milwaukee's Program of Special Education," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, VIII (February, 1942), 132-43.

Frank V. Powell, "Wisconsin's Program for Its Handicapped Children," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, VIII (February, 1942), 144-49, 160.

Jessie Tritt, "Special Schools for Children Who Are Exceptional," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIV (March, 1939), 161-65.

quency that wartime conditions have precipitated, an extra session of the state legislature made available for the year 1944-45 the sum of \$200,000. This sum is to be used for the employment, in county and city school systems, of visiting teachers and other necessary personnel to assist in the prevention and treatment of behavior problems of children. The program is conducted on the state level by the Division of Special Education of the State Department of Education. Michigan is the first state to take specific action of this type. It is a significant step toward assumption by the state of responsibility for guiding the behavior of its children.

The Wisconsin program (dating back to 1901) is unique in that, since 1939, it centralizes in one bureau of the State Department of Public Instruction the responsibility for the supervision of all educational activities both in day schools for handicapped children and in residential schools for the deaf and for the blind. The superintendents of these two residential schools, as well as the state supervisors of local school programs for exceptional children, are responsible to the director of the Bureau for Handicapped Children. In this way co-ordination and unity of objectives and practices are promoted. Like Ohio and other states, Wisconsin pays a subsidy to assist local communities to meet the excess cost of educating handicapped children. The amounts specified vary in Wisconsin with the type of handicap, and the children served include the visually defective, the crippled, the deaf and hard of hearing, the speech defective, and the mentally handicapped. The state makes provision also for transportation to centers and for maintenance for certain nonresident pupils, thus making special education available to the rural child. In this connection the most recent achievement came in 1943, when such facilities, previously limited to the crippled and the deaf, were extended to the mentally retarded. In the same year the first speech-training center exclusively for children who have had completely repaired cleft palates was held through a co-operative program of the State Department of Public Instruction, the University of Wisconsin, and the Wisconsin General Hospital.⁷

Those responsible for the administration of the state program for exceptional children in Wisconsin see the need for a child-study clinic supported by the state, to which children "would come for study and appraisal before being institutionalized, excluded from school, or permitted just to tag along year after year."⁸ They see the need for more state funds in order that the needs of all handicapped children may be

⁷ *Speech Therapy, a New Chapter in Wisconsin's Care for the Handicapped*. Madison, Wisconsin: State Department of Public Instruction, 1944.

⁸ Frank V. Powell, "An Overview and Some Signs," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, LXXVI (December, 1943), 189-92.

properly met. Gaps in the present program are recognized. The lack of enough regional centers for exceptional children is deplored. Children with outstanding talents need consideration. Changes in teacher-training methods are advocated to enable *every* teacher to recognize many of the special needs of children and to give guidance accordingly.

III. SOME IMPORTANT CHANGES NEEDED

All the programs that have been described are examples of the more progressive developments that have taken place in many states and communities. Yet even in these the leaders of the programs have called attention to serious gaps and to needs for structural changes. What shall be said about those states and those communities in which much less has been done to safeguard the educational welfare of exceptional children? Internal organization, administrative arrangements, and financial support are all-important considerations for the education of the large majority of children who fit fairly well into the so-called "normal" group; they are equally important for the minority of some 10 to 15 per cent of children who represent the deviates in physical, mental, or social characteristics. If it were otherwise, the objective of American education to serve *every* child would fail utterly of any possible realization.

The directions in which changes are needed have been pointed out by leaders in special education as they have critically evaluated the programs in their own localities. They are also implied in the portrayal of significant developments here presented. The accompanying chart shows pictorially the special educational and related services needed for the respective groups of exceptional children. In these special services for the various groups are reflected certain common factors in the services needed by all groups. For example, discovery and diagnosis of an unusual problem are certainly important at any time in the life of the child when the symptoms appear. So also, provisions for curative and remedial treatment should date back to the earliest possible time and be applied whenever necessary. Guidance through the child's school experiences, with a differentiated education suited to his particular needs, should follow him throughout his school career. Vocational counseling, prevocational and vocational training, with placement and follow-up in employment, are essential elements of the school program for all children. For exceptional children, the form that such services take should be adjusted to the handicap—or the talent—of the particular child being served.

The desirable changes in school organization are those that will make available to every child who needs them all the services indicated. Specifically, such changes may be summarized as follows:

EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

*For those unable to attend school.

- 1) The preferential treatment that now exists for one or more groups of exceptional children should give way to suitable and adequate provision for *all* groups. Intellectual brilliance as well as mental retardation, any type of physical handicap, an emotional disturbance, or behavior problem are all equally in need of special attention and should accordingly be made vital considerations in the organization of the school or the school system. The lack of special facilities for some groups is all too obvious in the programs under way. Existing gaps in service should not be permitted to continue.
- 2) So also the preferential treatment now being accorded to exceptional children in urban districts should yield to provision of suitable and adequate services to all, regardless of the locality or environment in which the child is found. The exceptional child in a rural community is quite as much in need of help as his city friends. The educational structure should, therefore, insure qualified county-wide supervision, regional centers, or some other means to reach children in isolated areas who are in need of special services. It should also insure home and hospital instruction to serve those unable to attend school.
- 3) The program of special education now too often exists in spots or at particular grade levels of the school or school system. It should represent one continuous process from nursery school through secondary- and even post-secondary-school levels, with plenty of opportunity for work and play with "normal" children and with special adjustment services as needed. These specialized services include the continuing study of individual problems, clinical facilities, special building facilities and equipment, special instructional techniques, specially trained teachers, and guidance into carefully chosen occupations for which well-planned school-work experiences may in many cases offer effective preparation.
- 4) The trend toward integration of the special-education program with the the total elementary- and secondary-school programs should be still further emphasized. Special education is *not* a thing *apart from* the rest of the school system. It should be an integral *part of* the educational services for all children and should therefore be closely co-ordinated with other school activities.
- 5) A state-sponsored program with appropriate legislation, qualified supervision, and financial support to cover the excess cost involved is an indispensable part of the structure of special education if it is to reach every child in the state who needs it. It is in those states which have a definite state organization in operation where one finds the most effective work being done in local communities. Rural areas, in particular, are the state's peculiar responsibility and must look to it for support of essential services.
- 6) All educational services for exceptional children carried on by the state or subdivisions thereof should be closely co-ordinated. Too often the residential schools maintained by the state exist as separate entities without any relationship to other state educational bureaus serving handicapped children. An integrated state-wide program cannot be achieved unless common standards prevail for residential and day schools alike. Those responsible for the administration of these two types of services should understand and appreciate one another's purposes and points of view and should work together toward

the same ends. This can be best accomplished through incorporation of all state residential schools for handicapped children into the state educational system, preferably under the administrative direction of the state education department, or at least operating under a co-operative working agreement with that department.

- 7) Finally, if exceptional children are to be served adequately, there must be working relationships between the education department and other public agencies concerned. Particularly are health and welfare agencies involved, for these serve the physical and social needs of many handicapped children for whose education the schools are responsible. A plan for the co-ordination of the respective services given will make more effective the work done by each of the agencies contributing to the total program. It becomes, therefore, an important part of a well-balanced structure of special education for exceptional children.

III

PROBLEMS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION RESULTING FROM MIGRATION

Recent years have witnessed a growing mobility among the American people. In an increasing number of cases the educational development of a child has become the responsibility of two or more schools, and not infrequently a child may have to pursue his education in several different school districts within a single school year. No small part of this shifting from school community to school community is due to economic conditions. Industries in one community shift to another or are discontinued entirely; new industries are established to meet the war needs; labor demands shift from center to center with the ebb and flow of the seasons or with other changes affecting labor conditions; dust storms, drought, pests, changes in agricultural practices, and soil erosion and exhaustion result in agricultural dislocations which uproot farm and village families over wide areas and set them on the road in search of new sources of livelihood.

Migrating groups in search of employment tend to follow specific patterns of time and place. As a result, particular communities of certain states are periodically faced with complex educational problems. Not only must they provide classrooms, teachers, and school funds for an ever-changing number of children during the school year but the schools must cope with problems of fitting these migratory children into a new and different educational program, must help them to make radical social adjustments, and sometimes they must deal with serious health hazards incident to the diseases with which members of the migrant families are afflicted or to the unsanitary conditions under which they are living.

Some studies have been made of the problems growing out of the migration of school populations, and here and there school authorities are in the process of finding solutions. But a great deal more thought needs to be given to this complex and socially significant development if the American ideal of providing equal educational opportunities to all children is to become a reality. It is obviously not enough to plan a progressive and democratic system of education for the resident children only; the child of the migrant family must also be considered in such planning. In view of the urgency of this problem, Mr. Gaumnitz here discusses the responsibility of school authorities in relation to the children of migrant families and explains how their needs can be met more adequately.

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The United States can exclude foreign immigrants having poor educational attainments or undesirable qualities from this country, but the respective states of the Union cannot exclude citizens of another state on the basis of their educational qualifications. The right and freedom of citizens of the United States to move from one state to another, or from one community to another, is both traditional and constitutional. Americans have from the beginning freely and extensively exercised that right. It is estimated that about one-fourth of the native-born population now live in states other than the one in which they were born, and this proportion is increasing. These facts mean that the quality and the quantity of the education to be acquired by the citizens of any one state must concern all of the states and, consequently, the nation.

But the more critical and difficult educational problems due to migration are those relating to the large groups of children whose families are residents of a given state, but who periodically move from place to place in search of a livelihood. The Farm Security Administration estimates that at least 350,000 families annually wander from place to place seeking to eke out an existence through migratory labor, chiefly following the crops. Authorities agree that the average migrant family of this type has two or three children of elementary-school age. These estimates indicate that nearly one million children, six to sixteen years of age, annually move from one school district to another, more or less temporarily, in order that they and their families may find various types of seasonal employment. Because of the seasonal nature of the employment sought,

these children often move many times during the year, thus becoming in rotation the responsibility of a number of school districts.

Many of these children, unfortunately, do not enter any school during the period in which their families follow the crops. They are for the time being removed from the jurisdiction of their home district, or even from their home state. If they are included at all in the annual school census, their census record is left behind when they move on to the next place. The school district in which they find themselves at any given time assumes little or no responsibility for their education. Their parents are regarded as transients, if not interlopers, who are not legal residents, who own no property in the community, who pay no taxes, and who are likely to constitute a health if not a moral hazard to the resident population. Moreover, the children of these migratory families are regarded as a cheap labor supply, who of right ought to work both because the growers need their services and because their parents need their earnings. Such an important right as the opportunity to secure proper educational training is considered secondary, if it is not entirely ignored.

If the migrant children present themselves for school enrolment, or if, because of a prolonged stay in a given community, they are compelled to attend a school, they are not likely to receive a hearty welcome. Besides the normal doubts with which the migratory children are regarded, these children constitute a problem because the schools are already crowded. Moreover, the wanderer is nearly always behind in his work, if not in his grade, thus imposing new and difficult problems both upon the school as a whole and upon the individual teacher.

A few statistical reports from the state of California, where the problem of caring for the education of seasonal migrants has been most acute, will illustrate further types of problems the migration of children of school age bring to the school authorities. In 1939, Helen Heffernan, Chief of the Division of Elementary Education in the California State Department of Education, estimated that there were 30,000 migrants of school age in that state.⁹ Roger Walton of the same state reports that "each year the Imperial County school population is increased 37 per cent for a period of four to seven months. In the Niland district this gain was 170 per cent from the close of the first month to the close of the sixth."¹⁰ In another school in this state the enrolment increased from 70 in September to 325 in March.

Of the 167 children of migratory laborers in Imperial County for whom the state of origin could be determined, Mr. Walton found that they came

⁹ *California Journal of Education*, VII (February, 1939), 181.

¹⁰ *Nations Schools*, XIX (April, 1937), 34.

from nineteen different states and from Mexico. As would be expected, he found that these children varied widely in educational background. None of the group was found to be above the normal grade placement, while 84.5 per cent of them were retarded at least one year, 18 per cent were more than three years retarded, and 3 per cent retarded more than six years.

A statistical picture of the changes in pupil load resulting from the late school entrance and early withdrawal of children of migratory laborers may be had from some data which became available for 1940 for the East Donna Elementary School, Donna, Texas. This school began the year with an average enrolment of 648 pupils during the first six-weeks period. This enrolment rose rapidly to 814 for the second six-weeks, fell to 782 for the third six-weeks, and fell further to 698 in the course of the fourth, fifth, and sixth periods. A total of 417 different pupils, or nearly two-thirds of the original enrolment of this school, entered their classes late; 313, or nearly one-half of the original number, dropped out early. During the entire school year a total of 988 different pupils enrolled in this school.

This school employed a total of 15 teachers, one of whom was hired at the beginning of the second six-weeks period. It is reported there was an average of about 43 pupils per teacher during the period of lowest enrolment, and 54 during the highest; for the entire term each teacher had to deal with an average of 66 different enrollees. One of the third-grade teachers reported an average of 73 pupils during the period of lowest enrolment and 94 during the highest; she recorded a total of 108 different children during the school year. Forty-six of these had entered late upon the return to this community of families engaged in seasonal work, and 41 had withdrawn early to participate in harvesting the spring vegetable crop.

While the annually recurring school problems involved in adequately caring for the children of families following the crops or pursuing other transient employment are both the most prevalent and the most difficult of solution, other transient groups also create difficult educational problems. Some of the schools of Florida, for example, are confronted with seasonal increases in pupil population due to the influx of winter tourists.

A study from Dade County, Florida,¹¹ reports that there were at the time of that inquiry 2,144 nonresident pupils in the first six grades distributed as follows: first, 413; second, 456; third, 367; fourth, 253; fifth, 314; sixth, 341. The largest contingents came from the following states:

¹¹ "Problems Arising from the Education of Tourist or Transient Pupils in the White Public Schools of Dade County, Florida." Master's Thesis, University of Florida, 1938.

New York, 748; Florida, 193; Illinois, 176; New Jersey, 159; Ohio, 150; Pennsylvania, 120; Michigan, 111. Thirteen foreign countries were also represented. In the six high-school grades there were 686 nonresident children coming from 38 different states, the District of Columbia, and 4 foreign countries. To care for the large increases in the enrolments 21 additional elementary- and 26 additional high-school teachers were employed. There remained, however, such usual problems as the lack of adequate pupil records, the difficulty of giving grades on the basis of brief periods of attendance, the difficulty of fitting children from large cities and large schools into rural school situations, and the difficulty of securing, late in the school year, teachers who were adequately trained for instructional service.

The number of pupils enrolled per month in a given school or classroom does not reveal the whole problem of transiency, because some of the children enter the same month during which others leave school. To understand the plaint that it is "difficult to educate a procession," the following statistics on the stay in school of tourist pupils reported by Goulding¹² from Broward County, Florida, are significant: 16 pupils remained 1 to 4 weeks; 53 pupils remained 5 to 8 weeks; 45 pupils remained 9 to 12 weeks; 38 pupils remained 13 to 16 weeks; 38 pupils remained 17 to 20 weeks; 34 pupils remained 21 to 24 weeks; 21 pupils remained 25 to 28 weeks; 8 pupils remained 29 to 32 weeks; and 9 pupils remained 33 to 36 weeks.

The large number of schools involved in the education of some migratory children may be illustrated by data reported by Larson¹³ for the Roosevelt School of Maricopa County, Arizona. Of the 378 children found to have been attending school for from five to eight years each, only 80 had attended just one school, 84 had attended two different schools, 55 three schools, 50 four schools, 44 five schools, 33 six schools, 14 seven schools, 8 eight schools, 4 nine schools, 2 ten schools, 1 eleven schools, and 3 twelve schools. Forty-two per cent of these children had attended four or more different schools; nearly 9 per cent had attended seven or more different schools.

It is apparent from the findings of these studies that many children of migratory parents lose much of the benefit of schooling because, in their movement from place to place, the schools lose track of them. Unless their parents see to it that they enter school at each place of temporary residence, these children receive little or no education. Practically

¹² R. L. Goulding, "Florida's Tourist Problem," *Nation's Schools*, XIX (March, 1937), 27.

¹³ Emil L. Larson, "Migration and Its Effects on the Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, XLI (December, 1940), 288.

all of them attend school so irregularly that they become both retarded in their progress from grade to grade and overaged for the groups in which they are placed. These facts, together with the difficulties in making and keeping friends and in being understood, cause most of these children to quit school at the earliest possible opportunity. Many of them move to such a large number of different communities and attend so many different schools that there is little of the stability a child needs to keep him interested and progressing normally.

I. CHANGES SUGGESTED IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION TO SERVE THE MIGRANT CHILD

School systems of the United States are poorly organized to deal effectively with the problems of educating the growing number of children who move from place to place. Both by function and tradition the schools were developed for and controlled and financed by the local communities. The school laws and the systems of school finance have not been changed with the view of providing equal educational opportunities for those who do not fit into the original and basic pattern of school organization. To be sure, with the accelerating tendency on the part of the states to assume more of the financing of the schools and, in consequence, more of the administrative responsibility for the education of all the children, there is evident a growing interest in those who move about in the course of their educational development. But even on the state level a migrant child is still largely a stepchild educationally. The educational leaders of some states, however, have given serious thought to changes which must be made in their school systems and in their administrative procedures to provide a better chance to the migrant or loosely attached child.

Except for the work done by the Tolan Committee,¹⁴ the problem of safeguarding the educational welfare of children who move across state lines has been almost completely ignored by the Federal Government. With the growing mobility of the people, this problem is beginning to be recognized as national rather than limited to individual states. Effective solutions must obviously be considered on both an intrastate and interstate basis. Some of the possible solutions will, of course, be applicable, with minor adjustments, to both intra- and interstate problems of education growing out of migration. But some additions to the basic federal

¹⁴ A committee known as the Select Committee To Investigate the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens was appointed by the Seventy-seventh Congress under the chairmanship of the Hon. John H. Tolan of California. Its report was published in twelve volumes. They may be secured from the Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

laws to provide both the financial assistance and administrative machinery for coping effectively with the growing number of educational problems in which two or more states are concerned will, no doubt, be necessary.

It must be also borne in mind that the whole question of caring more adequately for the children of roving parents is inextricably tied up with the problems of child labor. Any sound solution must therefore depend, at least in part, upon the existence and enforcement of sound state and national labor laws. Most of the migrations of families occur for economic reasons. On the one hand, the earnings of their children are usually needed to enable the families to maintain even the lowest standards of living. If the children attend school on a part-time basis they are usually too tired and listless to make much progress in school work. Moreover, they are often so poorly clothed that they are ridiculed by the resident children and are made to feel that they are outsiders. On the other hand, the employers greatly desire the labor these children can provide during peak-load periods, such as in harvesting perishable crops. They also seek the employment of these children to lower labor costs and to keep the costs of fruits and vegetables down. Since, in addition to these facts, the migrant child is not a resident of the community, and has no spokesman to plead for him, his education is not allowed to interfere with the labor demands. Too often the local and state school authorities take little responsibility because they feel the child will soon be elsewhere and that any educational liabilities resulting from their neglect will not be their concern.

Whatever arguments are mustered to justify the present neglect by the school systems in providing more adequately for children of migratory families, the costs involved cannot in any sense be regarded as a charity. As American citizens these children have a right to an opportunity for an education. Furthermore, they *live* in certain states and as citizens of these states are entitled to educational services. It has never been seriously contended that a minimum period of residence or other requirements should be satisfied before a child is admitted into the public schools of any given state. It has always been recognized that children have a way of growing up quickly. Their education cannot be delayed a year or two while they secure the right to go to school, as is commonly done in establishing the rights of adults to vote, to share in local provisions for unemployment relief, or to become the beneficiaries of other social services.

Still further, the education of the children of migrants must be considered as a legitimate charge upon the wealth they and their parents help to produce. Their low incomes and their inability to accumulate

capital assets cannot be admitted as evidence that they are nonproductive. Their productive contributions and capacities must be evaluated on the one hand in terms of the wealth accumulated by the many local producers as well as by the large combines which grow, process, and distribute the foods these migrants harvest, and, on the other hand, by the low costs to the consuming public of the commodities produced. The migrants, obviously, have a right to their full share of the social services financed from the profits of their labors. Viewed in this light, schools are under obligation to work out plans and procedures which will better fit their services to the children of migratory families. Moreover, if such families are characterized by poverty, bad health, social indifference, low living standards, and labor unrest, it must be remembered that these characteristics are more or less common to the society in which they live and labor. These conditions are only accentuated by shutting the children of these families out of the schools, or by shifting the responsibility for their education to other communities. All of these conditions can be basically solved only through education both of the migrants themselves and of the society in general which has permitted or produced the conditions in which children of these families find themselves.

What are some of the changes in the organization of school systems which will remedy the present educational plight of the children of migrants? The suggestions herewith outlined are somewhat subjective in character, but they do reflect broadly the ideas and solutions which have been proposed by those who have been closest to the problems involved. For the most part, these ideas have not been extensively tried out. Since in many cases the changes necessary are dependent upon changes in the laws, it is suggested that the proposals listed serve at least as bases for discussion to further public enlightenment on the important issues involved in the education of migrant children.

a. *Emergency Schools for Migrants.* California has attempted to solve this problem by the enactment of laws which provide: (a) for the establishment, equipment, and maintenance by the county superintendents of schools of emergency elementary schools for "children of migratory laborers engaged in seasonal industries," (b) for the employment of "emergency teachers," and (c) for school transportation for such children, or the cost of board and room in lieu of such transportation.¹⁵ To help defray the costs to the counties of providing these educational services the state pays, in addition to the regular annual grant of \$30 per elementary pupil in average daily attendance, "one-half the amount apportioned to the elementary-school districts on account of special schools and classes

¹⁵ *California School Code* 4.190 to 4.198, pp. 209-11 (1942).

for the children of migratory laborers,"¹⁶ but not to exceed \$75 per calendar month per teacher employed in such special schools.

While this law appears to be permissive rather than compulsory in character, a great many emergency schools or classes have been organized under its provisions since it was originally enacted some fifteen years ago. Amendments during these years have made the original law increasingly effective. Under present provisions of the law, emergency schools or classes can be established in temporary buildings, in tents, in labor camps, or in existing school buildings; pupils can be transported to schools in which there is available space, or funds in lieu of transportation costs can be used to pay board and room away from the points where their families temporarily reside.

The fact that such emergency schools or classes have often been set up in connection with labor camps and on a part-time basis has resulted in their being known also as "half-time camp schools." The practice of children attending school half days and working the other half has been both the strength and the weakness of these schools. It does provide an opportunity for children to attend school, but they are often too tired and listless to progress normally in their school work.

One of the chief advantages offered by these emergency schools or classes is that they provide a degree of educational opportunity for the migratory child among others of his own kind. In such a situation he does not feel unwelcome or out of place. Often he is much happier and makes better progress than if he were temporarily placed in the regular schools.

Some school boards have also experimented with "trailer schools"¹⁷ to follow concentrations of children of migratory workers from place to place. Such schools are placed on demountable automobile chassis and may be moved from point to point as occasion requires. A structure twenty feet long and eight feet wide (expansible to fourteen feet), with windows on one side and a heating arrangement under the floor, has been found quite useful in providing emergency schooling for migratory children.

b. Flexibility of School Day and School Term. Since most of the migratory children are on the road at specific seasons of the year but live in a certain locality during the remainder of the year, some thought should be given to the advisability of providing special short-term schools or of making other time adjustments to meet their educational needs. It has also been suggested that instead of holding rigidly to a school day from

¹⁶ *Ibid.* 4.1, pp. 200-201.

¹⁷ A. A. Woods, "Trailer Schools in Montana," *Nation's Schools*, IX (March, 1937), 28.

9 o'clock to 3:30 o'clock, thus taking the heart out of the work day, the schools which serve children who work in the crops might begin two hours earlier during certain seasons and dismiss about noon. During much of the summer season this adjustment affords such children both an educational opportunity and an uninterrupted period for work. To the objection that such an arrangement produces too strenuous a school-work day one can only answer that without such provision most of the children in question would work all day without either the benefits of schooling or the advantages of a change in the kind of activity engaged in.

c. Improved Instructional Procedures. Changes could readily be effected in the instructional program of the school systems as a means of improving the educational opportunities of migrant children. For example, ungraded rooms could be provided, and greater emphasis could be given to individual instruction and study. These changes would be helpful in adjusting the work of children retarded in their education as a result of frequent interruptions and attendant difficulties. All classes likely to receive migratory children should be kept smaller than is the usual practice in order to avoid overloading during peak seasons, and to allow teachers more time to deal effectively with children needing more individual attention.

The curriculum could be broken into a larger number of relatively independent units of instruction. Such an arrangement would make it possible for migratory children to complete certain definite units of the curriculum in one school and to continue with new units in other schools to which they may go. The use of short, relatively complete but closely related study units would insure a minimum of interruption or repetition in the instructional program. If the units should be arranged in such a way as not to necessitate the following of a fixed sequence, such planning would further facilitate the progress and normal adjustment of these children.

d. Child Accounting. A well-devised system of child accounting is needed to facilitate educational guidance on behalf of migrant youth. Child accounting should become a state-wide function with a supervisor in charge and a master file of cumulative record cards set up in the state department of education. Cumulative educational records should then be developed for each child, beginning when he is first placed on the census list, and kept alive until he reaches the end of the compulsory school-attendance period. In such a plan both the parents and the schools concerned should be held responsible for helping to keep these records up to date. When a child moves out of a school district he should be given an admittance card to the school district to which he will go, indicating clearly his educational and labor status and when and where he was last

in school. His cumulative record card should, at the same time, be sent to the office of the state department. It should then become the responsibility of the state child-accounting officer to see that the child enters another school or furnishes acceptable explanations for any delay in re-enrolment. Information should be sought with respect to both intra- and interstate movements. When the child has re-enrolled, a copy of his complete record should go to the new school to provide it with reliable information on all points necessary to understand his needs as fully as possible.

e. Improvement and Enforcement of Compulsory School-attendance Laws.

The compulsory school-attendance and child labor laws should be so administered in all states that children of school age are either brought into the schools wherever they may be or are required to show proper certificates from school authorities justifying nonattendance. The administrative procedures should be formulated with consideration for such factors as the age of the child, his health, the importance of normal educational progress, the value of work experience in his education, the total demand upon a child's energy of work in connection with school attendance, and the legal machinery and personnel necessary for effective enforcement of the regulations adopted. Such enforcement of school-attendance and child labor laws should be closely integrated with the state program of child accounting and other educational services. Consideration should be given to the advisability of uniting the program of child accounting, the enforcement of compulsory attendance, and home and school visitation programs with plans for the co-operative employment of a sufficient and well-trained staff by state, county, and district school systems. If the children of migratory families are to be compelled to attend school, it is essential that types of education suited to their particular needs and circumstances should be provided within reach of their homes.

f. State Aid. Many local school districts are financially unable and others are not disposed to provide educational facilities for nonresident children. Some school authorities believe that school funds which come from the local taxes should be used only to provide education for the local children. Moreover, state school-aid programs in some instances are based in large part on the school census. This means that the school districts in which the migrant children are when the census is taken receive additional state aid on their account; the districts to which such children go during the census year are expected to admit them to the schools but do not receive the funds the state provides for them. Appropriate changes in the basis for allotting state aid in such cases would obviously correct some of these inequities. Consideration should also be given to the establishment of some form of special aid in states in which the problem is encountered. Without such changes in state-aid programs, many school

systems will fail to provide the educational opportunities needed by the migrant children.

g. Federal Aid. Any plan to provide general school aid from the federal treasury with the view of equalizing educational opportunities between the states should recognize the educational and financial problems involved in the movement of children of school age across state boundaries. Such adjustments in allotments of federal funds made on the basis of school census, enrolment, or attendance of the previous year would, for some of the states in certain years, involve large sums. Special supplementary federal grants to offset most of the increased costs entailed in providing properly for the education of migrant children might be justified in terms of the extraordinary distribution of responsibility for the education of these groups.

h. Conferences and Agreements. Since it is likely to take time to secure the necessary modifications of existing laws and procedures, immediate steps should be taken to call conferences of local, county, and state school administrators to discuss the problems involved and to effect reciprocal agreements among state and local jurisdictions which would be favorable to the improvement of educational opportunities for these children. Through such intra- and interstate agreements it may be possible to transfer school funds, to secure desirable uniformity in child accounting procedures, to organize pools of special teachers and equipment to be transferred from school to school according to their needs, to bring about greater uniformity in curriculum, and to work out other helpful forms of administrative adjustments. Conferences concerned with the education of migrant children should probably be based on state and regional surveys to determine the number of such children in any given area, their movements, activities, and peculiar educational needs. The Federal Government might well take the lead in promoting such surveys and conferences. It might also profitably participate in the processes of negotiating interstate agreements. Conferences should also be held and agreements reached on problems of enforcing school attendance laws and child labor provisions for the children normally living in one state but migrating periodically with their parents to work in the crops of another state. With such agreements it may be possible to follow such children across state lines so that states may be in better position to influence them either to enter the school where they are or, if circumstances permit, to return to their resident districts for schooling.

Any changes in school administration which will unite the smaller districts, local or county, into larger ones for administrative purposes would obviously contribute to the solution of the problem of educating the migrants. Such changes would, in the first place, reduce the amount of mi-

gration to some extent because there would be fewer jurisdictional boundaries and, in consequence, fewer children moving from one school district to another. A larger administrative unit would also be in a better position to provide teachers and other school facilities which could be shifted from those parts of the district in which enrolments are decreased to other parts where they are increased. Larger districts would make it easier to employ the professional staff necessary to provide the improved school services especially needed by migrant children. These include such services as adequate child accounting systems, sympathetic home visitation, effective enforcement of compulsory attendance and child labor laws, regular medical examinations and treatment to reduce health hazards, emergency schools and classes, special tutors to provide aid for retarded or maladjusted children, and vocational or other special types of guidance and instruction. It is evident that the small local school districts cannot, within themselves, provide these special services and facilities.

Many additional changes to facilitate the education of migrant children could, no doubt, be added to those herewith proposed. Some of the ideas suggested could probably be broken into subunits and applied piecemeal; others could be combined in various ways to fit varying local conditions and circumstances. The chief point of all these proposals is that much more serious thought should be given to fitting the educational program to the needs of migrant children.

IV

CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN RURAL AND SPARSELY SETTLED AREAS

At present in the United States public elementary education is available to nearly all children of elementary-school age. Through no fault of rural residents, the elementary schools in rural areas in general are less satisfactory than those in cities. There are many outstanding exceptions to this generalization and there is evidence of successful efforts to improve the quality of rural schools in some communities. Yet, on the whole, in rural areas the teachers are less well prepared, supervisory services are less adequate, and school terms are shorter than in cities. In many rural schools reading materials are limited almost entirely to textbooks prepared to fit the experiences of the city child. Supplementary books and other instructional materials are meager in comparison with those of city schools; health, welfare, physical education, and recreational services and facilities are less adequate; and school buildings are less well designed and in poorer condition.

Similarly, there are wide differences among the states in the percentage of young persons of high-school age who are in attendance in high schools—differences that in large measure reflect urban-rural differences in family incomes and in school facilities. While further expansion in high-school attendance in the postwar period may be anticipated in most states and plans must be made to care for it, a need no less important is for a careful reworking of high-school programs. Great diversity exists in both the quantity and the quality of offerings, but in general the offerings are inadequate in both quantity and quality in vocational subjects, in general training in skills and work habits necessary to useful employment, and as preparation for cultural and avocational activities and for successful homemaking. Educational and vocational guidance services are also inadequate. These general criticisms apply with special force to the high schools in rural communities, many of which are so small and have such limited resources that their offerings are necessarily extremely meager. These schools have the responsibility of preparing a large proportion of the youth of the nation for useful, self-sustaining membership in society. If properly developed, they can also make an increasingly important contribution to American community life, both rural and urban. In this section Mrs. Cook presents a discriminating analysis of the problems involved in effecting the desirable improvement of educational opportunities for children and youth in rural areas.

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I. EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY—ITS MEANING AND IMPLICATIONS¹⁸

In this country we shall never be satisfied until we have assured to every child that kind and degree of education necessary for the fullest and most perfect development of its humanity, for the complete life of manhood or womanhood, for the intelligent performance of the duties of citizenship, and for making an honest living by intelligent and skilled labor of some kind. . . . The world is also becoming conscious of the fact that neither society nor state can ever attain to its best until every individual unit of it has attained unto its best. The first duty of a democratic state certainly is to provide equal and full opportunity of education for all its children.¹⁹

¹⁸ This section contributed by Dr. Fannie Dunn, formerly Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

¹⁹ *Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1914*, Vol. I, pp. xiii-xiv. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1915.

A better statement of the American ideal of educational opportunity would be hard to find than this, set forth by United States Commissioner of Education Claxton in his Report of 1915. Yet it still lies ahead—far ahead, if surveys of rural school achievement and measures of rural educational facilities are valid evidence. Certainly in material provision—length of terms, educational materials, qualifications and experience of teachers, and the financial support which conditions these—the rural group has been markedly disadvantaged.

There is, however, no evidence that identity in the conditions mentioned would assure the desired equality. Terms, buildings, salaries, and the like, are means to be employed as and to the extent needed to reach the desired end—"Long enough to reach the ground," said Lincoln, when asked what the length of a man's legs should be. The question has hardly been raised as to what length of term, for example, and within what dates, would best serve the educational needs of rural children; how vacation periods might be scheduled to make best use of rural recreational opportunities for swimming, skating, skiing, and hiking on the one hand, and to afford guided work experience at appropriate seasons on the other; or whether the school term should be differently scheduled for young children ill able to face the exposure of long walks and rides to school in inclement weather and adolescents capable of genuine participation in rural activities of economic and social value.

That genuine equality of opportunity is irreconcilable with identity of educational provision and program is commonly recognized in modern adjustments to individual differences. That provision for differences in groups is equally necessary is not so generally understood. Education as it has developed in America today has been shaped to fit the needs, environment, and conditions characterizing the urban group, which is commonly regarded as the norm, and such adjustment as is made for the rural group consists mainly in omissions of parts of the pattern.

As a matter of fact, the American population of school age is bimodal, rural and urban being almost identical in number. Although, of course, they have many characteristics and much environment in common, the two groups are distinct in numerous significant aspects, and each needs a pattern cut to its own measurements; nor can either be served adequately by a second-hand making over of the other's educational garments. If the two groups are to be equal in opportunity, a common concept of a school organization, or indeed of a school, will not suffice.

That there are subgroups within these two main groups must also be recognized. Each as a genus has many species; within the rural group, for example, climatic factors, labor demands of various crops, access to centers of population and relative population density or sparsity, cultural and economic levels of communities, and many other factors call for ad-

justments of structure. The proportions and cost of this structure cannot be arbitrarily determined, but should be whatever is necessary to achieve the ideal of equality of educational opportunity.

Fundamental to this achievement is analysis of the important distinctive characteristics of groups, to be followed by such structuring of the educational system as is appropriate in each case. This process has characterized urban education for many years; it is hardly begun in the rural communities. The purpose of this chapter is to give such fundamental consideration as has been indicated to the more important aspects or problems of structuring education for the rural group.

II. SCHOOL ORGANIZATION IN RURAL AREAS—THE PRESENT STATUS

Approximately half the children of the United States live in rural areas and most of them attend rural schools. The amount and quality of education available to these children measures to a significant degree our success in providing equitability of educational opportunities and preparation of all children and youth for desirable citizenship and participation in the "American way" of life. Proverbially there can be no equality of opportunity in adult life without equality of educational opportunity in childhood and youth, a fact that becomes increasingly significant as education becomes more and more closely related to all of life's needs. To a considerable degree success in approaching equitability for rural children waits on increased efficiency of the school organizations which serve them.

By and large, schools in rural areas may be classified into two large groups, the small one-, two-, and three-teacher schools, and the newer, more modern types of schools usually resulting from some form of centralization of administrative units and school organizations. The former are usually organized as elementary schools on the eight-grade plan; although the 467 public high schools enrolling fewer than ten children (data for 1938) indicate that some of the two- and three-teacher schools probably offer some work—possibly one or two years—on the secondary level.²⁰

Considering the country over, there are many types of centralized schools, the prevailing being one formed from a voluntary pooling of resources by two or more small district units or school organizations, organized on the eight-four plan and equipped to offer the usual twelve years of schooling. Transportation and at least some special services are common characteristics of the consolidated or centralized schools. The county unit prevails throughout the South. At its best it represents a county-wide set-up of two or more high schools, a larger number of ele-

²⁰ Statistical data subject to inaccuracies owing to present conditions. They are believed valid enough to give a picture of the education and to point the direction which reorganization will take under normal conditions.

mentary schools located strategically according to population, and a unified program for all children supported by the county as a whole. General and special services such as supervision, transportation, medical and dental services, and so forth, are furnished in progressive county organizations. Maryland, Florida, and Utah are examples of variations of such county organization. Other varieties of the enlarged unit school are union or township high schools, independent districts, the New England town organization, and the township school.

In number and extent of distribution for the country as a whole the one-teacher school organization is still the prevailing type. Enrolments vary; nearly 3,000 schools enrol four or fewer pupils, 15,000 fewer than ten. The estimated enrolment of the 113,600 one-teacher schools in 1940 was approximately three million children. In the two- and three-teacher schools, a slightly more promising organization, about four million children were enrolled the same year, and in six-teacher and larger schools, usually representing some form of centralized organization, between three and four million. The figures are confined to communities of 2,500 or less. Rural children are enrolled also in schools located in urban communities, especially those of secondary grade.

The size of the school organization as well as the size and resources of the administrative unit of which it is a part are important factors in the quality of education offered. Studies of the relationship of quality to size of school measured by number of teachers employed; pupil enrolment and class size; qualifications, salary, tenure, and experience of teachers employed; length of term; adaptation of building and equipment to the school program; and provision for individual differences and special services, among other criteria, point to close correlations. Indeed many such criteria—qualifications and salaries of teachers, for example—vary directly with the size of the school, the standards in two-teacher schools being slightly higher than in one-teacher schools, those in three-teacher schools another step higher, and so forth, with acceptable standards confined almost wholly to village and consolidated rural and city school organizations. Neither the scope of this article nor the lack of information concerning the quality of the educational programs offered in small rural schools justify full discussion here. However, studies made over a period of years comparing rural and urban school situations have reached similar conclusions. Loss of schooling from short terms, lower percentages of enrolment, greater irregularity of attendance, lower salaries for less-qualified teachers, fewer children of normal age for their grade and more above normal age, characterize rural as compared with urban schools.²¹

²¹ Unpublished data, United States Office of Education, 1940, confirm this statement.

It should not be concluded that small schools necessarily maintain low standards. They can be, and many are, parts of larger school units or organizations—county or centralized, for example—through which are furnished such special services as professional administration and supervision, general and special subject; qualified teachers; health and medical services; adequate materials and equipment, and other advantages. But for the approximately six million children enrolled in such schools, with a few notable exceptions, modern school programs with appropriate instructional, health, and recreational services, for example, are not generally provided. Indeed there is grave danger that the situation recently disclosed by the selective draft data may recur with another generation of educationally neglected children, a condition detrimental to the country's as well as their individual welfare. Especially pertinent in this respect is the recent statement of Commissioner Stoddard of New York: "To the extent that any group or class has less or poorer education than it deserves as determined by social criteria, every group suffers a measurable deprivation."²²

Progress has been made in the secondary field, in accessibility, though enrolments are not yet commensurate with those in urban communities. In 1940 approximately 59 per cent of the rural youth of secondary-school age (fourteen to seventeen years, inclusive) were enrolled in school as compared with 77 per cent of urban youth. In 1930 corresponding percentages were 33 and 61. In quality of education offered in very small high schools progress is probably less satisfactory, though again it would be a mistake to assume that all small high schools are below standard. There is, moreover, a definite increase in the proportion of children attending larger high schools, due partly to the fact that more children enrol in larger centers of population and partly to the increasing numbers of larger high schools in rural areas. War-motivated migrations may possibly have accelerated this trend. At any rate, high schools of two hundred or more pupils reached 20 per cent or more of the rural pupils in 1938 compared with 11.5 per cent in 1930.²³

On the elementary as on the secondary level the present movement toward some form of centralized school organization, which affected approximately four million children in 1940, appears to offer one acceptable way out of inefficiency for large numbers of rural children when its possibilities are fully realized. In certain isolated areas small schools will probably continue to be necessary, at least for some years to come. How-

²² *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CCXXXI (January, 1944), 140.

²³ "Study of Public High Schools by Size," *Education for Victory*, II (April 3, 1944), 18-19.

ever, as they become parts of larger units, organized to make special services available, many of the weaknesses of isolation will be eliminated.

It may be assumed that centralized school organizations of any of the types mentioned with enriched resources, social as well as economic, will function efficiently in respect to the selection and placement of teachers in harmony with the program—obviously the purpose each was established to serve.

The need for greatly increased provision for the supervision of instruction in rural schools has long been widely recognized.²⁴ Several provisions are set up under various auspices: the state department of education; an intermediate governmental unit such as the county or New England town; the local school system; co-operative districts of several types, as the co-operative county district of Utah, and the magisterial districts of Virginia counties; or common school districts as in Rockland County, New York. All of these have elements of value; each is designed to meet the need of a particular situation.

While all state departments of education furnish some assistance aimed toward improving instruction, relatively few finance and administer instructional supervision on a local basis designed to meet the needs of rural schools. Experience indicates that the *generalness* of this type of rural school supervision, including adequacy in number and location of staff, is directly related to the degree of state support. Where it is fully financed and supervised from the state departments of education, as in New Jersey and Connecticut, it is equitably offered to all rural school systems. Where it is encouraged by state grants to local school districts, as in Wisconsin and Florida, it is apt to be more adequate in well-to-do than in poor rural counties.

A quite different organization operates in Minnesota, where several members of the state department staff located in the central office work with county superintendents during somewhat infrequent visits. They conduct teachers' meetings and institutes or workshops and usually visit some schools in each county. Washington's state department and higher institutions co-operate in an in-service training plan adapted in part to meet the needs of emergency teachers. These plans seem effective rather in supplementing inadequate local staffs than in furnishing instructional supervision.

County organizations for supervision usually operate in one of two ways; (a) through deputy or assistant superintendents who assume both administrative and supervisory duties, or (b) through instructional supervisors on the staff of the county superintendent who typically devotes

²⁴ Contributed largely by Dr. Fannie Dunn.

his time to administrative duties. California and Wisconsin are examples of this type of state-aided supervision which extends into a high percentage of the total number of counties in each. In several states *some* counties, usually those above average in financial resources, employ instructional supervisors with or without state aid. In centralized school districts of considerable size the staff is usually organized to provide one full-time supervisor, a supervising principal or assistant principal, by title.

III. ORGANIZATION TO EFFECT NEEDED SERVICES

Social changes of community or world significance, the findings of research, and other causes lead to corresponding changes in school programs and practices. The extent to which rural children share in the benefits of important innovating practices in education is a test of the efficiency of the organization of the schools which serve them. The scope of this article permits the discussion of only a few of the more outstanding trends in education in relation to their development in rural schools through efficient organization. Examples are included to point out possibilities rather than to explore achievements.

1. Education of Young Children

a. The Problem in Small Schools. In communities served by one-, two-, and even three-teacher schools, adequate programs for young children immediately preceding and following "permissive" (often younger than legal) school age are almost wholly wanting. School programs presuppose an entrance age of six years and teachers rarely are prepared to care for younger children or to plan their time to do so. Yet many children under six attend even the one-teacher schools in rural communities regardless of legal or other regulations. In sixteen states the permissive entrance age is below six and very little is or can be done to prevent enrolment of children four to six years old. Their presence in school is of little value to them and a detriment to the group whose program it upsets. While there is no available report of the total number of four- to six-year-old children enrolled in small rural schools, a study²⁵ of selected rural counties in five states in 1931 indicates that these children are being enrolled in significant numbers. For example, in Iowa, of 1,958 census children below six years of age in ten counties, 1,779 were in school. Kindergartens were available for one-third of these children; the remaining two-thirds were presumably placed in the first grade with no appropriate program. In the rural counties of the other four states, similar conditions were found.

²⁵ *The Status of Rural Education*. Thirtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1931.

The lack of attention given children in the lower grades of one-teacher schools was pointed out some years ago.²⁶ In the schools studied, first-grade children were given an average of 140 minutes per week of the teacher's time as compared with 275 minutes per week which she spent with the seventh grade. The general lack of understanding of the educational needs of young children prevalent in rural communities and among rural teachers and the pressure felt by the teachers to prepare the upper grades in several subjects, often because of final examinations, county or state, are among the causes for this neglect.

b. Preschool-age Children. The organization needed to enable rural schools to provide for young children is not necessarily the same as that usually effected in urban schools; rather it is one designed to apply the same principles and to achieve the same purposes in the two different situations. Many of the larger centralized schools conduct kindergartens. The central district schools in New York are examples, both because of the possibilities of the local school organization and of the provisions of the state department of education which includes a service to promote the education of young children. Two such schools recently reported kindergartens with enrolments of twenty and twenty-two, respectively. Each of them enrolled from 300 to 350 children and employed about twenty-five teachers. To one, the kindergarten children came in regular school busses and were taken home in the school station wagon at 11:00 o'clock when the teacher went to another school. A midmorning lunch was served. Admission was at four and one-half years.

In some schools certain members of the regular staff, such as the school nurse, the psychologist, or a teacher who has specialized in kindergarten-primary education or nutrition or other appropriate field, cooperate in conducting some form of parent education, usually bringing preschool-age children and mothers to the school for appropriate periods and programs. One principal reports regular visits to the homes of young children by the school nurse preceding and following their birth.

A significant number of rural high schools, reported from a number of states, provide play or activity programs for preschool-age children in connection with courses in homemaking. The children are brought to the school probably with or by the mothers and remain for appropriate hours, perhaps during the morning, for a week once or twice during a school term. Programs suitable for both mothers and children are prepared by the students under supervision; and both become familiar with the school which the children are later to attend.

²⁶ *Analytic Survey of State Courses of Study for Rural Elementary Schools.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 42, 1922. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1922.

c. *Early Elementary Years.* While the initiation and development of the centralized school movement is due largely to a recognition of the needs of children in the upper elementary and secondary grades, the resulting organization also facilitates efficient practices in the early elementary grades. Problems of children in these grades in the small schools, however, still press for solution. It has long been recognized that one of the serious disadvantages of children enrolled in small rural schools is the prevailing eight-grade organization, one designed for large schools, which provide at least one teacher for a grade. The tendency to individualism, aloofness, and timidity so often prevailing among rural children is actually aggravated by the small classes in the small schools. Reorganization of groups and regrouping or fusion of subject areas have been experimented with variously over a period of years. Their success usually requires such services as ample supervision, in-service training programs, and co-operative curriculum building and presupposes state, county, or area organization which can provide them adequately.

A plan in operation under the direction of a county supervisor in Pennsylvania exemplifies one successful procedure where small schools for any reason still persist. The supervisor²⁷ describes it as follows:

In grouping *children* several plans may be utilized: (1) combining each two ascending grades and alternating the subject matter in geography, history, literature, English, science and health in "odd" and "even" years; (2) grouping children of similar abilities in homogeneous groups for work in the skill subjects; (3) grouping all eight grades for certain general work such as nature study, health and community study; (4) grouping three or more grades for socialized activities in the content subjects and carrying on the skill subjects in homogeneous groups or on an individualized basis.

In grouping *subjects* a similar variety of approaches is employed: (1) combining history and geography as "social studies" in each grade; (2) combining science, geography, history or health with English; (3) weaving social studies, science, health, English, informational reading, and the arts into large integrated units centered about topics closely related to the children's environment, with a yearly plan of rotation of units.

This latter plan, coupled with (4) in the preceding paragraph seems to offer the most promising opportunity for well-rounded learning experiences for the children of a one-teacher school. Class periods can be of sufficient length to allow for a stimulating discussion, for reports on individual research reading, for co-operative planning, and for group evaluation. The group working together can be of adequate size to provide real social situations. The varied ages and abilities of the children offer opportunities for the more mature to help those less mature, and provide stimulation and "exposure learning" for the less able children. Interrelations between content fields can be developed and related art, music, and literature given meaning and purpose.

²⁷ Genevieve Bowen, Bucks County, Pennsylvania.

2. Pupil Personnel Services

Among newer services admittedly desirable but not widely extended to rural children, in which school organization plays an important role, are those commonly known as pupil personnel, guidance, and adjustment services. By whatever name, they owe their establishment and maintenance to the point of view that the *whole* pupil is the important consideration in education, not just his intellectual achievements, and to the general acceptance of the principle of individual differences. The accepted objectives are to assist him to take fullest advantage of all opportunities the school offers and to anticipate and prepare according to his capacity for all of life's needs. Important phases of the services concern attendance, health, and guidance, including clinical child welfare.

a. School Attendance. Improved school attendance among rural children implies efficient organization for the specific purpose of promoting attendance and school programs that appeal to the interests and meet the needs of rural children. Compulsory attendance laws were always less well enforced in rural than in urban districts. Now that emphasis is more on the study of causes of absence and remedial measures to overcome them, "truant officers" should be replaced in rural as they have been in urban school organizations by professionally prepared officials with functions of the kind usually associated with visiting-teacher services.

Fundamental in promoting attendance is efficient organization of the state department of education. Among steps progressive states are taking toward the ends indicated are distribution of state aid on the average daily attendance rather than the census basis; state certification of attendance officials based on professional qualifications; state-wide supervision of instruction; preparation of curricular materials; and organization within the department of education of an attendance service.

Progressive states go much further than this. Pennsylvania, e.g., maintains an attendance service with a large staff, including home and school visitors responsible for the general supervision of state laws and regulations concerned with attendance. School districts are reimbursed from state funds for salaries of attendance officials on the same basis as for those of elementary teachers. State officials advise with local officials and see that attendance problems receive necessary attention.

Maryland exemplifies both state and county services. The state standards require that attendance officers have academic and professional preparation equivalent to that represented by an elementary teacher's certificate of the first class. Their duties include developing a county program with the social agencies to provide shoes and clothing for needy children, eliminating the causes for which the school is responsible which bring about withdrawal of pupils, urging elementary- and high-school teachers to visit the homes and study the home conditions of each prob-

lem case, seeing that children enter school when it opens, and improving attendance through school lunches.

b. Guidance and Child Welfare. Guidance, broadly interpreted, presupposes adequate attendance services and carries the program somewhat further to the end of discovering and using wisely the educational and vocational abilities and opportunities children have or can develop. Thus interpreted, it is an integral part of the whole education program, elementary and secondary. Complete guidance programs include those sometimes called child welfare, clinical service for child welfare, or by other names. In the elementary school guidance is largely a function of the teachers, under the supervision of a director of guidance, with the assistance of visiting teachers, psychologists, and specialists in health and physical education. High schools carry on the program adjusted appropriately to the needs of adolescents, including occupational guidance and placement.

State or intermediate unit organizations, or both, to provide guidance, including child welfare services, are essential if the services are to be extended to rural children generally. Massachusetts and New York are examples of organizations operating on a state-wide scale. In Massachusetts the State Department of Mental Diseases co-operating with school officials conducts two types of clinics, habit and child-guidance clinics and traveling school clinics. The former gives intensive study by physicians, psychiatric social workers, and others, to more than 1,000 children each year. The latter includes fifteen psychiatric traveling clinics with a staff of sixty-five persons serving schools and their surrounding areas and conducting from eight to nine thousand examinations in more than two hundred different towns in the state, including many which are distinctly rural.²⁸

In New York, services are given through three bureaus organized in the state department of education—the guidance bureau, the bureau of attendance and child accounting, and the division of examination and testing, the three functioning together. Field supervision, conferences on problems of attendance and adjustment and on guidance are held throughout the state, and consultative service to schools and teachers colleges are among the functions.²⁹

²⁸ *Clinical Organization for Child Guidance within the School.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, 1939. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Information confirmed by recent letter from the Massachusetts State Department of Education.

²⁹ David Segel and Morris Proffitt, *Pupil Personnel Services as a Function of State Departments of Education.* Studies of State Departments of Education Monograph No. 5. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

There are a number of excellent guidance and child-welfare organizations on the intermediate level in a number of states. Rockland County, New York, maintains a guidance service through a county vocational and extension board appointed by the county board of supervisors, supported by the participating schools, special appropriations from the county supervisors, and a state allotment. Services include those of school nurses, physicians, dental hygienists, physical educationists, psychologists, specialists in music and art, vocational teachers, and coordinators. Ninety-two per cent of the 11,000 pupils in the participating schools receive one or more of these services. The program reaches twenty-seven of the thirty-six public school districts in the county. The staff numbers twenty-two and a director.³⁰

Another organization, the "department of child welfare," also applicable to other units, operates under the auspices of a New England town school organization. It serves ten elementary schools, scattered over the forty-eight square miles of the town, and one senior high school. It includes three visiting teachers, a school psychologist, the attendance officer, and the home instruction teacher for chronically ill and convalescent children. In Connecticut attendance officers are usually social workers, whose duties include the investigation of the causes of non-attendance and the application or recommendation of necessary remedial measures. The three visiting teachers are assigned to elementary schools and serve also the high-school pupils from the same elementary districts. The school psychologist serves all districts, elementary and secondary, and carries on both individual and group testing.³¹

c. *Health and Medical Services.* Health, an important objective of education and necessarily an integral part of all school programs, deserves special emphasis in rural school programs. Obviously, health, physical education, and medical services are essential elements of any pupil personnel service.

An efficient organization in the state department of education is a major essential in the extension of health and medical services to rural children. It should stimulate and supervise health programs, set up standards for health instruction and school environment, and prepare instructional materials. About half the states now maintain these services, at least to the extent of employing one or more special health supervisors on the state department staff. A few state departments of education provide and supervise medical services. New York, for example, main-

³⁰ *United for Education*. New City, New York: Vocational Education and Extension Board of Rockland County, 1943.

³¹ Margaret Huntley, "The School's Social Responsibility to Children," *Education for Victory*, III (July 20, 1944), 7.

tains a division of health and physical education with a staff of sixteen supervisors in addition to a director of medical inspection and staff.

In many counties in different states, county health departments and county schools co-operate in providing health and medical services for all children. Santa Barbara County, California, is an example. An informal organization of health and school officials furnishes health services for all schools in the county. Of this plan the county health officer says, "The health department's greatest contribution to society is to be made in health education rather than in personal service or law enforcement. The schools have eagerly accepted its assistance. The resulting co-operative effort enhances efficiency, permits a desirable degree of uniformity of procedure, and reduces cost."³²

Centralized schools either independently or co-operatively with county health officials, physicians, nurses, and social agencies, usually organize their staffs to secure health services for the school though the adequacy of the program differs among schools. A report from a rural centralized school in Alabama describes a health program organized by the principal and teachers who enlisted the help of the county health officer and nurse. Their co-operative efforts resulted in periodical audiometer tests being given in the school, as well as diptheria shots, typhoid immunization, and smallpox vaccination. In order to secure these services the school pledged itself to engage in certain community health projects such as the construction of sanitary outhouses and the organization of classes for adults, and to require that each member of the Senior class undertake a health project in his own home.

3. Recreation and Leisure-time Activities

Rural schools have a special opportunity and responsibility to integrate recreational and leisure-time activities into their regular programs and to extend their recreational opportunities and facilities to their respective communities. The need is well known and the "structure of local organization for education, especially where consolidation of schools and districts is effected, affords the most important and economical organization available for leisure-time activities in rural areas."³³ The present trend for schools to incorporate recreation into their programs should extend widely into rural communities.

A number of state departments of education assume responsibility for promoting and supervising school programs of recreation and leisure-

³² "Community Organization for Health Education," p. 38. A report presented by a committee of the American Public Health Association, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1941.

³³ C. G. Wrenn and D. L. Harley, *Time on Their Hands*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

time activity. Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Ohio, and Utah provide supervisors or directors, usually of physical education and recreation, in their respective state department staffs. Last year the state office of public instruction in Washington sponsored a plan for the development of school-co-ordinated child-care recreation programs. A number of the co-operating rural schools reported successful playgrounds and helpful teacher activities.³⁴

In Minnesota the law authorizes school districts to use school funds for recreation programs and many rural boards provide community recreation through the schools with the school superintendent as administrator and a recreational director in charge. The state board of education distributes instructional materials in recreation.³⁵

St. Louis County, Minnesota, operates an extensive recreation program through the leisure-education department of the county board of education, a pattern which could be followed by other counties. A wide variety of activities are offered, including adult education, athletics, dramatics, music, art, social recreation, water sports, and frolics. The total attendance at all activities for one recent year in the county of 60,000 population was 1,206,240.

A number of well-organized centralized or consolidated schools report recreational programs reaching into their communities. Some employ a director of recreation; in others the recreational program is directed by the head of the physical education department or the principal of the school. Many schools in small towns and villages co-operate with other agencies such as youth councils, local churches, and civic organizations in providing community recreational programs, generally supported by fees, contributions, and public funds.³⁶

Recently teacher-education institutions have interested themselves in preparing prospective rural teachers to conduct recreational activities, both as a part of the school program and for the community. Two such colleges, co-operating with the United States Office of Education, conducted recreational programs in connection with an educational project in several Spanish-speaking communities in the Southwest.

4. Secondary Education

Organizational problems concerned with the education of rural children on the secondary level include, as previously indicated, making the high school available to all children and improving the quality of the pro-

³⁴ From letter from the office of the state superintendent, Washington.

³⁵ George Hjelte, *The Administration of Public Recreation*. New York: Macmillan & Co., 1940.

³⁶ "Some Small Communities at Play," *Recreation*, XXXVI (August, 1942) 291-95.

grams offered. Progress in accessibility is indicated by recent data on enrolments; in quality, at least potentially, by the constantly increasing enrolment in larger, usually centralized, schools and through appropriate reorganization of programs to add enrichment to the curriculum of the small ones. The importance of the latter should not be underestimated while the movement for more and larger schools is under way. We still have an estimated enrolment of 313,000³⁷ children of secondary-school age in schools enrolling 75 or fewer children; 544,000 in schools enrolling 100 or fewer, largely rural children. An enriched program that will appeal to their interests and needs as well as to those of many of the 40 per cent not now enrolled in high school is an immediate "must" for rural schools and communities.

Fortunately, we now have rural high schools enrolling 50 to 100 pupils with three to five teachers which, through carefully planned curricular reorganization, offer acceptable programs. Generally such reorganizations provide for alternations and combinations in subject matter, selection of qualified teachers with preparation in harmony with the program as planned, a salary schedule which is at least "good" according to the standards of the area, and professional supervision by a state or intermediate unit supervisor or by a full-time principal.

A variety of programs involving the principles indicated are in practice in small schools throughout the country. A suggestive program of studies for a four-year high school enrolling 60 pupils with a staff of three teachers and a corresponding time schedule of classes, each adaptable to other small school situations, is presented by Dr. Francis Spaulding in the 1934 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education.³⁸ The program provides for music, art, health activities, four years of agriculture and of home economics, two years of foreign language, and the usual amount of history, mathematics, science, and English generally expected by accrediting agencies. Dr. Spaulding also suggests a program for a six-year high school with five teachers in which he aims to set forth the possibilities of further curriculum enrichment in schools organized on the six-six plan.

Curriculum enrichment through itinerant or supervising teachers has been found successful in a number of states and with a number of subjects. In Wisconsin, Ohio, Pennsylvania, among other states, the plan is used for teaching agriculture, home economics, and other vocational subjects. A teacher on a prepared schedule visits two, three, or more schools,

³⁷ "Study of Public High Schools by Size," *Education for Victory*, II (April 3, 1944), 18-19.

³⁸ *Economic Enrichment of the Small Secondary-School Curriculum*. Washington: Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1934.

spending two or more periods per week in each, following a county-wide plan arranged with county and local school officials. Such a plan is applicable to instruction in music, art, and industrial arts, though less extensively employed. In some organizations supervisors of special subjects work on both elementary and secondary levels.

To some extent and in some states, supervised correspondence study is a means of adding to curricular enrichment and of bringing secondary education to pupils in remote areas. The State Department of Education of Montana, the University of Nebraska, and the State Board of Administration of North Dakota, each maintains a service, state-wide in scope. The staff of the state organization in North Dakota (the only one reporting) includes eleven full-time, fifteen part-time teachers, four full-time office employees, and one director. The Phoenix Union High School District, Phoenix, Arizona, provides correspondence courses for children living in the district but remote from the schools, for irregular pupils, and for those who have failed in certain courses.³⁹ Success in conducting correspondence courses depends on good organization on the state or local level, or both, including adequate supervision of the pupils concerned.

Central school organizations appropriate to the area served are an even more feasible solution to the problems of accessibility and efficiency of education on the secondary than on the elementary level. Children of high-school age can be transported farther for a longer day than younger children. The larger centralized schools usually follow the general pattern prevalent in cities and should as readily accept progressive program changes; in fact, innovating adaptations to community needs are even now as common to these schools as to urban high schools.

The New York central district schools may be cited as examples of both state and local organizations conducive to the extension of centralized schools and to efficient programs. When such districts are in process of formation, the state department of education encourages or requires provision for special teachers, as in arts and crafts, for remedial instruction, for health services and physical education, and, in the high schools, for instruction in social studies, English, mathematics, science, home-making, agriculture, and shop work.

One such school⁴⁰ was formed by a union of sixteen common-school districts and one high-school district; it is approximately sixty-seven square miles in area. The school has an enrolment of three hundred pupils, one hundred of whom are in high school, and a faculty of twenty-

³⁹ "Brief Descriptions and Answers to Questionnaires Relating to Correspondence Education." Edited and Compiled by the Extension Division, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska (mimeographed).

⁴⁰ Central School District No. 1, Allegany County, New York.

four teachers. The salary scale is characterized as "good" with increments commensurate with ability and quality of work; teachers are given visiting days with pay and a sick-leave program is in effect. There are a principal and an assistant principal, neither of whom is a full-time teacher. State aid provides 75 per cent of the total cost of the school.

Some significant movements among larger rural high schools are concerned with the extension of school services into communities and provision for directed work experiences for high-school pupils, both boys and girls. These innovations require well-organized programs with flexibility in scheduling, care in the selection of teachers, and effective community leadership on the part of the officials responsible. The Holtville Community School in Alabama,⁴¹ for example, offers a variety of community services. The school is organized on the six-six plan, has an enrolment of 350 pupils, practically all of whom are transported, some living as much as twenty miles from the school. The school operates facilities for community canning, for dehydrating and refrigerating foods, for incubating eggs, and for grinding food, among others. The daily schedule is organized on the "time block" plan with ninety-minute periods to permit selection of activities and time for individual work. The students work in the shops, on the farms, in varied industries of the community, in refrigeration and canning plants, and in other ways on an earning basis.

The increasing interest in post-secondary education is reaching into some rural communities in which large schools of a centralized type with adequate financial resources have added two years of such education, using to some extent the buildings and equipment available for the secondary school. The development of junior colleges in connection with union high-school districts in California is a notable example of an achievement of this kind which has been under way for a number of years and which is now extended widely throughout the state.

5. Summary: Needed Reorganization for Rural Education

- 1) The goal of education in the United States is equitability in opportunities and desirable unity in programs. About half the rural children eventually live and earn a living in urban centers.
- 2) Education has been shaped to meet the needs of the urban group, whereas the American population of school age is bimodal, with common characteristics of rural and urban groups but with distinct and significant variability in their needs. Questions of moment concerned with the educational significance of these distinctions have scarcely been raised.

⁴¹ *The Story of Holtville: A Southern Association Study School*. Developed by the Holtville, Alabama High-School Faculty in co-operation with Southern Association Study Staff, 1944.

- 3) Progress in bringing equitable educational programs to rural communities is not universal but enough has been made to prove that the task is not impossible.
 - 4) There is no one pattern of structural organization that meets all rural situations equally well. There are common problems as there are economic, climatic, topographic, even traditional differences that govern school organizations and programs.
 - 5) Organization of the educational structure serving rural people is the most significant factor in achieving high quality of educational programs in rural schools and eventually equalizing educational opportunities.
 - 6) On all three levels, state, intermediate, and local organizations, the quality of personnel determines the quality of activities and programs—facts that need wider recognition.
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V

CHANGES NEEDED IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATION TO PROVIDE
EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADULTS

It is commonly recognized that in recent decades the proportion of adults in the total population has risen steadily and will probably continue to rise. In 1920 the percentage of the population twenty years of age or older was 59.2; in 1940 the percentage was 65.6. The Scripps Foundation for Population Research estimates that by 1960 this percentage will have reached 71.

The level of schooling of this adult population is not as high as our long experience with compulsory school attendance would lead one to expect. According to the 1940 census, the median educational attainment of the population twenty-five years of age and over was 8.6 years; of that twenty to twenty-four years of age, 11.2 years. A further indication of our educational status comes from statistics released by the Selective Service System, showing rejections of one in every hundred white registrants and twelve in every hundred Negro registrants because of educational deficiency.⁴²

But this is not the only evidence of the need for expanded educational facilities for out-of-school youth and adults. Further evidence comes through increased use of such facilities wherever they are offered: a million and a half students in evening and adult classes operated by public school systems in 1940; a million and a third adult students in federally aided vocational-education classes. Adult education agencies other than schools experience the same demand, with registered borrowers in public libraries approximating twenty-five million (ten million of them

⁴² Based on a sample of 45,585 examinations and released February, 1943, by the Selective Service System.

children), and the circulation of books mounting to more than four hundred million in normal times.

Nevertheless, facilities are not now adequate to provide educational, cultural, vocational, and recreational opportunities for adults past the years of formal schooling. What is needed to make them so is described by Mr. Williams in the following section.

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In the midst of great crises the currents of change run strongly. When everything is upset by the dislocations of war, people who expect change anyway find it a particularly propitious time to plan for a better and quite different future. They ask themselves what was wrong with the way things were and what might be done to improve them. They even speculate on measures which might insure against a more disastrous upheaval.

In discussing possible changes and improvements on one small sector of the educational front, we should remind ourselves that the success of mass education in this country is remarkable. The fact needs to be asserted that the fascist forces made war upon the peoples of Europe, of Britain, Russia, and the United States precisely because the movement for equality and enlightenment *was* succeeding. More than anything else they fear and fight practical plans for mass education. The burning of books, closing of schools, persecution and murder of teachers and intellectuals—these acts are compliments to democratic strength; they define what the fascists fear.

Yet the fact that we so little understood the purposes and methods of the fascist forces as to permit them to prepare and make war is a commentary on a weakness in democracy. Our failure to see the danger and to counter it with overwhelming preparedness and with unity with other marked victims of aggression gave the fascists hope of success. This shortcoming must be met with education and mostly by adult education; for it is a matter of understanding and public policy.

It may be claimed, then, that the peaceful penetration of the forces of freedom and enlightenment provoked a violent reaction, but that the instruments of mass education were poorly employed to prepare people for this rather obvious eventuality. This proposition defines a needed emphasis in postwar educational planning.

* The author of this section was formerly Director of Adult and Civic Education, United States Office of Education. The present discussion is not related to the U.N.R.R.A. program.

Practical proposals must be based on a recognition of certain factors in American society. Some of them follow:

1. The American people, having struggled rather successfully for free elementary and secondary schools, expect most youth to become educated in these schools before they reach maturity. Hence, only a tiny minority of adults hanker after more education. Masses of adults will not rapidly be enlisted in life-long learning movements.

2. Schools have been organized primarily for children. In staff, equipment, and approach they are not well prepared to serve adults. Adults do not want what is thought best for children. Few will tolerate being squeezed into small desks to be lectured on formal subjects.

3. Colleges and universities, while more attuned to the adult approach and better equipped for grown-ups, suffer several disabilities. They are not within the reach of the working population as the neighborhood school is. They appeal more to the specialist or the professional wanting to improve his qualifications than to the ordinary man in quest of broader knowledge. They tend to staff their faculties with professors qualified for research more than for teaching; few personalities come through this selection process who are skilled enough to attract and hold voluntary groups of adults.

4. Organized education is and will probably continue to be a local and state responsibility, so we may expect that most improvements must be made by the local and state planners. Sudden changes of a nation-wide character are not to be expected.

5. Budgets for free adult education are difficult to pry out of public appropriating bodies. We may expect this difficulty to persist and perhaps to increase as economy-mindedness inevitably follows in the wake of war-spending. Schools and colleges will feel that their first obligation is to the full-time student. The adult voters who can be depended on to favor adequate school facilities for children are not readily induced to appropriate their taxes for their own enlightenment. This is logical because so few feel the urge for continued education. The returning veterans will constitute an exception, but this call upon the public purse will expand vocational more than general education.

With these points in mind, let us turn to an agenda of proposals for changes and improvements.

I. KINDS OF EDUCATION

Organization and budget planning as well as selection and training of leadership must be planned on the basis of content and program. In adult education the program must reflect the felt needs and interests of the learners, for there is no compulsion and little lure in grades, credits, and

degrees. Therefore, the learners must be brought into the program planning. Too often the curriculum is laid out by professional educators who think they know what people ought to study. In the last analysis the classes and activities announced cannot succeed unless a sufficient number enrol.

The most obvious type of adult education is vocational. Though this is handled in another section of this chapter, it is appropriate to point out that the success of educational offerings for vocational improvement lies in the clear incentive for study. It is more difficult to develop incentive for continuation study in avocational, cultural, and civic subjects. Without such incentive, the best plan, budget, staff, and program will languish.

In contrast to the incentive for vocational studies which is highly individual, the incentives for general studies must be highly social. The school system which wishes to involve a substantial number of adults in such a program should develop a long-range plan for influencing public opinion. One of the objects of the plan is to mobilize the strong pressure of social sanctions on the side of adult education.

This starts in the elementary and secondary schools with teachers and pupils. Every teacher is daily influencing both children and adults in the community for or against continuation education. All tendencies toward the assumption that learners *finish* school must be discouraged. If the assumption of lifelong study is at the heart of the teaching program, it will be expressed in a thousand ways over a period of ten or twelve school years until it becomes the expectation of the learners. The kinds of study for which they have incentive for later pursuit will be defined most effectively in the lower schools.

To the degree that the organized school cultivates curiosity, creates a zestful approach to learning, prepares the youth for an unending pursuit of knowledge, effects an early conquest of the tool subjects, and surrounds the study process with strong social approbation, the incentive for general adult education is developed. This also prepares the community to expect leadership from the organized school system, not merely to get youth through school but also to get people through life.

A great part of the present lack of adult interest in any but vocational studies is the direct result of the average person's school experience. This lack cannot be made up by an adult-education director preparing attractive programs and publicizing them with great fanfare. The whole school staff must work consciously toward the adult-education program and regard it as the flowering stage of the educational system. If they think of it as a sort of fifth wheel, as something tacked on to the basic program, the learners will adopt the same attitude.

The school must go beyond its limited sphere into the community and

provide leadership in an unostentatious promotion of incentives for adult learning. All the media which influence public opinion and create social sanctions are involved—the church, social and civic organizations, cultural institutions, press, radio, and motion pictures. The media of expression too often deprecate learning, characterize it as stuffy and dull, surround it with a symbolism such as horn-rimmed glasses and cartoon characters presenting students as dried-up, peculiar people. The media have produced an effective propaganda against voluntary lifelong learning, against schools and teaching, and have glamorized the empty-headed approach to life. Respect for learning and a new symbolism can be engendered over a long period by conscious effort of responsible community leadership so that pride and a sense of achievement are associated with learning.

In a recent survey in Denver it was discovered that 85 per cent of the adults interviewed had not attended any courses or study groups aside from job-training. Almost everyone expressed a vague need for further education, and two-thirds wanted to get a clearer understanding of world affairs. The kind of education which is most obviously a community responsibility in a democracy is the kind which will improve citizenship by helping people to understand the social and political problems of their times.

Yet, this so-called civic education doesn't necessarily come in the form of lectures or discussion series on public affairs. Too often the assumption is made that intelligent citizenship is *primarily* a matter of getting an understanding of current problems. Problems are constantly coming into view in new forms and there are a great many big and little ones to tackle. The debate of public questions will more or less take care of itself by a rather natural priority arrangement of problem discussion in the public forum if the public is prepared for intelligent participation. The study of history, science, geography, biography, literature, and such like provides the background and cultivates the temper of mind for fruitful public discussion of current issues. An adult-education program ought to stimulate adults to cultivate intellectual hobbies, to dig into various fields of knowledge. There ought to be many amateur historians in every community as there are amateur photographers. Regardless of the line of liberal-arts study the result should be a readiness for more intelligent participation in the public discussions. Of course, narrow academic approaches to subject matter will attract few people. The courses must be popular in the sense that an initial interest is significantly channeled.

Another kind of education is avocational in nature. Here the incentives are generated both by individual interests and social sanctions. The repression of the creative in people by an increasingly rationalized system of

work and production creates a problem and an opportunity for adult education. Mass production and artistic handicraft could develop side by side as labor efficiency results in a shorter work week. The social sanctions must be against time-wasting and for creative work so that people will want to learn how to do something well. In one West Virginia community the school superintendent discovered a source of excellent clay in the area and developed a program in clay-modeling and pottery. A very large number of adults got interested and the study of pottery became a community enthusiasm. Exhibits were held and people took pride in their new creative work.

It is conceivable that, with the leisure made possible by mass production, a great new enterprise might be developed in the handicraft arts and in the fine arts. The adult-education program of the local school can build toward that end. But it must promote the idea, as well as provide the technical classes. In other words, the schools must have a definite conception of the modern community behind its program planning and must project that idea through all means of communication. It is not enough to offer to teach people certain creative skills; they must find a warm social receptivity for their work. This involves the creation of methods of exchange and distribution. The organization of co-operative marketing programs is not the business of schools, but guidance and instruction on the body of experience now available is a distinct job for education.

Another kind of adult education closely related to the civic and avocational is appreciation education. This includes language study, the fine arts, and in fact any field of knowledge. A distinction must be made as to purpose. To study to become a performer, whether a chemist or a musician, is one thing; to achieve an intelligent appreciation of the performance is still another. Adults who are ready to devote a semester of an evening a week to an appreciation course in astronomy often find that astronomy is being taught as if they were to become astronomers. They can get nowhere in such a short time and may even encounter technical prerequisites to understand the elementary course. So they are deprived of the opportunity to get what they are ready to seek. There is great need for the popular course which is especially designed for the layman who doesn't want to become an expert but does want to know what the experts are doing and to appreciate some aspect of the great body of knowledge.

II. STAFF

In the matter of staff lies the greatest challenge to the schools. What is needed here is a fresh appreciation of the requirements for adult education. Few teachers can shift gears from teaching children in regular classrooms to guiding adults in a seminar. Finding the few who have the ver-

satility to make this shift is one means of recruiting staff, but only one. Training even these for the special task of adult teaching is essential. Other teachers with the interest but no demonstrated skill may be developed into adult teachers through special training and guided practice. It is fatal to an adult-education program to assume that the same methods used in teaching inexperienced children will suffice with experienced adults. This fact is going to strike home with particular force when educational institutions confront large numbers of young veterans.

One change which would quickly improve most programs of adult education is the modification of state and local requirements on certification. This has been done in a few places with considerable success. There are many excellent teachers in the average community who have never received any teacher training but have a natural knack and a real competence in their subject matter. The great advantage to be gained from these amateur teachers is their experience not only in their speciality but in dealing with the public. Adults respect practical experience and are especially critical of mere book knowledge. Lawyers, doctors, social workers, businessmen, labor officials, journalists, government specialists, and people from many other walks of life can be considered prospective adult teachers. Many such people welcome the opportunity to engage in part-time teaching, partly as a discipline in their own field of research and partly as a change from their own jobs. The lawyer who has made a hobby of his study of the Constitutional Convention, for example, may be just the person to handle a class or a unit of study in American history. The central questions are: (1) Is his scholarship sound? (2) Is he skilful in teaching and leading discussion?

III. BUILDINGS

More and more school buildings are planned for the adults as well as the children, but there is room for improvement and improvisation in this regard. A study room with tables and chairs can be quickly informalized after school hours by moving the tables to the back and sides and arranging comfortable chairs in a semicircle for an adult group. A committee representing the adults who are using the building can take some responsibility for this kind of conversion so that the facilities will represent just the kind of atmosphere conducive to adult study and discussion.

Just as certain rooms may be set aside for the exclusive use of teachers, the modern school ought to provide special rooms for the adults of the neighborhood. In urban societies the working day is not the same for all the people. Many night workers have mornings or afternoons which they would like to devote to some kind of study. Local school facilities, such as shops, swimming pools, art rooms, and libraries, should be available for daytime adult education and recreation.

The British village colleges have suggested a way of making the school an educational and cultural center. The school is a part of the center rather than the adult program being fitted into the formal school. Some facilities are used by both school children and adults while other parts of the plant are exclusively for one or the other.

IV. LEARNING AIDS

Educational films, film strips, recordings, exhibits, and broadcasts are used by too few school systems in adult programs. If generally used throughout the country, the per unit cost could be brought down to a fraction of the present expense.

The armed forces have developed the training and informational film to a remarkable extent, uniting on a large scale the subject-matter scholar and the professional film-maker. Seeing the trend, the University of Chicago, the Encyclopaedia Britannica Corporation, and the Encyclopaedia Britannica Films (formerly the ERPI Classroom Films) are at work on educational pictures. This is only one of several ventures which suggest a new postwar development, making available for the first time a large library of film subjects especially suited to educational programs. The British and Canadians are creating films interpretive of their cultures, and other countries are discussing plans for the interchange of such films in a great program of international education.

The recording techniques have been improved during the war so that a new dimension is added to this educational medium. Soundproofed booths for listeners should be planned as part of the equipment for schools. To such booths blind people might come to hear books read to them. Large record-lending libraries may well introduce a tutorial teaching program by which study can be directed in the home or in the special booths in school or public library.

The Office of War Information and the British Ministry of Information have demonstrated how popular exhibits can be used in a far-reaching type of adult education. The best photographic material can be conveniently distributed in small packets of reproduction negatives at very slight cost. Hundreds of thousands of people in Great Britain, Australia, and in other countries have learned much from these large exhibits. Plans could be developed through the large professional organizations for the utilization of this body of experience by schools in a community visual-education program.

Certain wave bands for broadcasting (frequency modulation) have been set aside for the use of schools and colleges. If several hundred educational authorities invest in relatively inexpensive broadcasting equip-

ment after the war, state-wide or even national hook-ups can be achieved so that educational programs of high caliber and low per-station cost can be broadcast. At least recordings can be used to give widespread circulation to the best educational programs. This development would make it feasible to tap the best teaching skill in the country and make it available to learners in their homes.

Such educational stations could organize programs on the assumption that the listeners tune in to learn something, rather than to be amused and entertained. A regular class of ten thousand is a very big thing, though a commercial station can ill-afford to cater to it. The commercial station must strike at a rather universal interest, while an educational station can organize special interests and not be concerned because different groups are listening to different programs. Opportunities for face-to-face group work can be publicized to the large audiences following the various courses of study. Moreover, the educational radio would inevitably stimulate large numbers of people to enrol in classes and groups meeting for discussion.

V. FINANCE

It is to be expected that the cost of adult education will be met largely by local and state appropriations. Leaving out of account the large investment in vocational education and the smaller allocations to programs to reduce illiteracy and provide for Americanization classes, the public school budgets for adult education are very meager. The Federal Government restricts its aid largely to vocational education. This aid is likely to be increased to make special provisions for the returning veterans.

Fourteen states have laws providing for state funds to meet part of the costs of local programs of adult education. The Michigan study of 287 different school districts for 1942-43 indicated that nearly half of the money for adult education came from the state.

A considerable proportion of the special classes for adults are financed in part by enrolment fees. As a general rule adults respond better to programs for which some charge is made. Attendance is more regular when the learner has a little investment in the course or class. Perhaps even a larger portion of the actual cost of an adult-education program could be collected from the enrollees if the school authority would underwrite a small staff of very capable organizers to develop the schedule and publicize the offerings. If one assumes full employment and high real wages, it should be feasible to expand adult education without materially increasing the total budget. This calls for a re-examination of the present allocation of the budget so that a greater proportion goes to a director with superior qualities of leadership and to his staff and less to the operational expenses.

VI. COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL

Perhaps the most significant change which might be proposed in the present functioning of public school systems in the field of adult education is in its relations with the community as a whole. School authorities still tend to be too exclusive, to operate on the "come and get it" principle, and to insist on running a program by themselves.

Few school superintendents have taken leadership in assembling the natural leaders of the community to function in an adult-education council. Such a council needs some paid leadership to keep it going and the school is the natural community organization to provide that leadership. Yet, often the school will not even be active in the struggling council which is established.

Rapid changes in the structure of the modern community have created new problems which have now to be met by schools with a greater degree of flexibility. Merely creating a program of interesting courses led by competent teachers is not of sufficient appeal. Such a program proposes that the class become a mechanical unit for the exclusive purpose of learning a subject matter. This has very limited appeal. Group life is difficult to develop and is essentially based on a social foundation. The community is full of groups which have been carefully cultivated and represent warm-hearted associational life. The people in them are held together by friendship and social interests. They express a loyalty which in the adult world is akin to school spirit.

Instead of setting a magnet in the form of a program of classes on subjects and trying to draw individuals into a formal and lifeless association for a short-run learning experience, the adult education division of a public school system might better put more effort into guiding and developing the educational aspects of many existing groups. Learners as well as teachers, books, and materials influence the thinking of a class; therefore, it is important to add the quality of social cohesion to the interest in subject matter. People who share a common experience in life, such as work or neighborhood problems, will tend to integrate a common study into the social fabric of which they are a part.

Moreover, the dynamic of an adult-education program comes in large part from the associational spirit. Only the rare individual can be expected to follow a study program in splendid isolation out of sheer interest in the subject matter. People stimulate each other and react to the social sanctions surrounding them. For this reason, in small communities where people know each other and work together in many different groups, the good intentions of individuals are more effectively supported by group influences. Learning which is purposefully promoted by the existing group life tends to develop a continuity and significance.

Program planning taken in this sense begins with a study of the groups

and their interests and problems. The program eventually developed seeks to strengthen and enhance the meaning of the existing associational life instead of recasting individuals in new groups. The school acting as a catalytic agency and as the source of leadership becomes an integrating influence. It gradually breaks down the notion in the public mind that the school is a kind of factory responsible for turning out a certain product and is more and more regarded as the facilitator and partner. Its whole program gains strength and community support as it becomes active in co-operation with all of the groups of the community in promoting common interests.

These comments sum up to say that the public school system is a natural instrumentality for popular education, provided that certain changes are made in its approach to its clientele. These changes will take form in planning the programs, selecting the staff, budgeting the available revenues, and directing public relations with the co-operative groups.

Changes of this character are not swift. They do not show rapid results. The very word "education" when linked with the term "adult" must be given new connotations—and this takes decades. The media of radio and motion pictures may give new impetus to adult education and stimulate a relatively impressive expansion. But there is really no magic formula by which a large percentage of adults can be attracted to programs designed for their enlightenment. The social order, the folkways, and habits of mind change slowly. Yet, the time is ripe for a new advance and the institution which most intimately reaches people where they live and work can take a leading role.

VII. SUMMARY

The foregoing suggestions for expanded, redirected programs of adult education have a number of implications as to the organizational mechanisms for providing such services. For one thing, since adult education needs to be flexible, adjustable, mobile, it does not lend itself to neat institutional patterns of classes, schools, and districts as do other forms and levels of education. Nevertheless, *organization* is necessary, and the public school administrative unit of organization more than any other, such as the proposed state-wide unit of organization around a state university or college, offers a practical central core of a system. As school administrative units are reorganized to serve elementary- and secondary-school programs more effectively, they should also be planned to serve adult-education needs more fully.

Further, though it is appropriate that school systems include adult-education departments co-ordinate with their elementary- and secondary-education departments, it does not necessarily follow that staffs will be either proportionate or separate. The adult-education department will need its own leadership, and certainly its own specialized staff. But it

differs from the others in its need for flexibility in selecting its staff and in joining efforts with the community.

Finally, though adult education is primarily local, there are certain types of services or activities which can profitably be organized on a regional or state basis, as for example, the development of radio stations for educational broadcasting; area schools for specialized vocational, technical, or artistic training; or "circuits" for leaders of forums or discussion groups on civic, social, and economic questions. When programs are planned on both a local and regional area or state basis, with effective interlocking relationships, a *system* of adult education may be evolved in this country in place of the spotty and sporadic efforts which now prevail in this increasingly important field.

VI

THE ORGANIZATION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR YOUTH AND ADULTS

One of the fields of education which experienced most rapid expansion in the two decades before the war is vocational education. By 1940 more than a million students were enrolled in federally aided all-day classes, with another million and a quarter students in evening and part-time classes. As the succeeding pages show, the demands of wartime employment have brought more millions of youth and adults to public vocational schools and colleges.

The responsibilities of these schools will not diminish with the termination of the war. Besides the normal number of young persons coming up through school and attaining the age appropriate for occupational instruction, there will be great numbers of youth and adults now engaged in war production or military services who will need retraining or additional training to find or keep a job in peacetime industry. How to meet these needs—urgent from the standpoint both of the individuals involved and of the public welfare—is one of the critical problems facing the schools. The significance of this problem and some measures that may be expected to contribute to its solution are explained by Mr. Lathrop in the ensuing section.

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The Bureau of Labor Statistics⁴³ estimated that in July, 1944, assumed to be the peak of the war effort, the armed forces would total 11.3

⁴³ "Factors Determining Postwar Job Transfers and Unemployment," *Monthly Labor Review*, LVIII (February, 1944), 270.

million. If the postwar armed forces are no larger than the 1940 armed forces, well over nine-tenths of them will be mustered out. The rate of demobilization, however, cannot be predicted with any certainty.

The number of workers engaged in the final stages of producing combat material, including in this category ordnance, ammunition, aircraft and aircraft parts, and naval and merchant ships, was estimated at five to six million. This does not count the workers producing raw and semi-finished materials, equipment, and supplies that now go into munitions but also have peacetime uses. In peacetime just over four million persons were employed in the metal, chemical, and rubber manufacturing industries. It was estimated that at the peak of the war the requirement would be 10.3 million. The difference of about six million indicates the net number who would be displaced if munitions orders were wiped out and industry reverted to 1940 civilian volumes in these fields.

The war has also brought an expansion in other components of non-agricultural employment, for example, government, transportation, and public utilities. The extent of transfer which will be necessary in these four groups and the rate at which transfers must be made are not known, but it is certain that demands for training and retraining will be tremendous in their amount and diversity. Such demands are in addition to the normal peacetime load of youth approaching the age of employment.

I. VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PRIOR TO THE WAR

Vocational education in the secondary schools of the United States has grown rapidly since 1917 when the Smith-Hughes Act was passed. The Federal Government, in co-operation with the states, first developed programs in agriculture, the trades and industries, and homemaking. Later funds became available for distributive education and occupational information and guidance.

In agriculture, instruction was offered to all-day (high school) classes, part-time (out-of-school youth), and evening (adult farmer) classes. The same types of instruction have been offered in homemaking for high-school students, out-of-school youth, and adults.

In trade and industry, instruction was offered to all-day (high school) classes, evening (employed adult worker) classes, and part-time (youth) classes. These latter enrol (1) employed youth who wish to increase their occupational efficiency and (2) employed youth working in a "blind alley" occupation and preparing for a different occupation, i.e., youth employed in industry part time and studying the remainder of the time at school; youth attending general continuation classes, which include classes for general citizenship training; and youth training for office work and diversified occupations.

More recently federal funds have been available in distributive education. Part-time and evening instruction only are offered in this field.

The instruction outlined above is of less than college grade and, in its applications, is limited to a small percentage of the total number of occupations.

II. WARTIME EXPANSION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The vocational defense-training program (later known as the war training program) was authorized by federal legislation which appropriated for the first three years an aggregate of \$206,900,000 for the operation of courses and \$38,000,000⁴⁴ for the purchase of equipment. More than 5,000,000 persons have received training in war occupations in public vocational schools. Two types of courses are authorized: (1) supplementary courses for persons employed in essential war occupations but who require additional skill or knowledge in order to fit them for more responsible positions in the essential industries; (2) pre-employment courses designed primarily for unemployed persons or those employed in nonwar occupations. In the first year of the program, 79.7 per cent of the trainees had not previously attended vocational classes.

A part of the war training program (vocational education for the national defense) was designed to furnish training for youth and especially rural youth which the original war training program could not reach. Later this program was extended to adults and redesigned to assist in the production of food for the war effort. It is now called the Food Production War Training program. Since its inception in 1940 the course enrolments have totaled 2,804,284.⁴⁵ The largest enrolments are now in Course 5, Farm Machinery and Equipment Repair and Construction, in Course 15, Food Conservation and Preservation, and in a series of commodity courses designed to assist in reaching wartime food production goals.

Vocational Training for War Production Workers and Food Production War Training have depended upon "lay teachers" for much of the instruction. Previous to the war such teachers have been used in the trade and industrial program. These "lay teachers" often lack teaching experience but are skilled in their occupations, have the ability to "get along" with people and are respected citizens. When well supervised and given instruction in the elements of teaching method they have been satisfactory teachers. They usually teach relatively short courses during part of the year in their special fields.

These two programs and the success of the "lay teachers" point

⁴⁴ *Pre-employment Trainees and War Production*. United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin 224. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

⁴⁵ As of March 31, 1944.

to an enlarged adult vocational-training program after the war. Much retraining will be necessary to adjust war workers to peacetime occupations. The vocational staff in a given vocational school, supplemented by the "lay teachers," can offer training in a wide variety of occupations.

The Engineering, Science, and Management War Training program is a co-operative arrangement between the United States Office of Education and participating colleges and universities to offer short courses of college grade designed to meet shortages of engineers, chemists, physicists, and nonengineering production supervisors in fields essential to the national defense.

Each course is designed to meet a specific need, and the trainees are expected to seek employment in the jobs for which courses prepare them. Many of these courses are similar to those contemplated as vocational-technical. The need for such training after the war is more than likely. If such courses are conducted in higher institutions, including junior colleges, a high degree of flexibility will be necessary inasmuch as the courses vary in length, entrance requirements, and required teaching facilities.

III. LIBERAL AND CULTURAL CONTENT IN VOCATIONAL CURRICULUMS

One group of educators believes there is an element of culture in fine workmanship and that a craftsman is cultured when he knows his craft, its history, its forms, its masters, its utility now and in the past. The ranks of the cultured include architects, sculptors, painters, and those who have created the modern devices which help to make up our civilization.

Another group of educators look upon culture as a heritage from the past. It is to be drawn from a prescribed series of courses which are a survival from many decades of college preparation. These courses, in their opinion, are just as appropriate for those who are learning a trade as for those who are to enter college.

A third group of educators would include as cultural much that is derived directly from vocational training and whatever seems appropriate to the needs of their students from the literature, philosophy, arts, and science of the past. In other words, they would select from the content advocated by the preceding two groups, and, in addition, would emphasize such knowledges, habits, and appreciations as will assist their students to maintain a home, rear a family and share in the life and welfare of the community and state.

It is a matter of much importance which of these three schools of thought gains the ascendancy during the coming years. If it is important that youth make a life as well as a living, the third school of thought has much to offer.

IV. SOME RECENT CHANGES IN VOCATIONAL OR RELATED FIELDS

1. Vocational Training and Larger Administrative Units

Despite the spread of vocational education in the United States, thousands of communities are without its benefits or are only partially served. Rural and village schools particularly lack vocational-training facilities. Many small city school systems are handicapped because their public school administrative units are too small.⁴⁶

It is essential that vocational-education opportunities be enlarged. Such enlargement will come in two ways. Some areas having no facilities will establish programs. Other areas will make arrangements to share in the benefits of existing programs which will be brought within their reach. Rural people will obtain certain types of vocational education through further consolidation of school districts.

Schools or classes set up to enlarge vocational-education opportunities have special characteristics. First, they are set up for a group of people who are trying to improve their employment status. Second, instruction is offered in any desired vocational field. Third, existing school systems are expected to adjust standards in accordance with the needs of students. Fourth, the patronage area for existing schools may be greatly extended and the patronage area of one kind of training may be different from that of another kind of training given in the same school.

Schools or classes may be of different types. New departments in existing schools may be established; new features, like work experience, may be added to established courses; short-term or special classes may be organized in existing schools; schools may co-operate by exchanging students, each school specializing in a separate field, or larger schools may be established in connection with existing schools which, because of some special need or advantageous facilities, may draw students from a wider area, requiring living quarters for those who must leave home; and finally technical vocational schools may be organized to offer instruction for somewhat specialized types of work and to which only those students would be admitted who have the particular aptitudes and the educational background to pursue the courses offered.

Schools or classes having the special characteristics and included within the types mentioned above give us a concept which will prove useful in enlarging opportunities for vocational education. The term *area vocational school* has been applied to this concept. For the most part, the *area vocational school* stems from existing school facilities. As in the case of other good vocational programs, effectiveness depends upon fortunate rela-

⁴⁶ *An Enlarged Program of Vocational Education with Special Reference to Larger Administrative Units*. Washington: American Vocational Association, Inc., December, 1943.

tions between public school authorities, the state vocational-education staff, the employment services, and local industrial and business employers, farmers, and homemakers. An *area vocational school* is the people's school, the primary aim of which will be to meet the needs of the people by providing a type of education which has heretofore been unavailable to large numbers.

The statement that school administrative units are too small is another way of saying that the local financial structure is weak. The different types of area vocational schools are alike in this: they provide for an enlarged school administrative unit and therefore for a stronger financial support. The area vocational schools of the future should reach larger numbers of trainees; they should also serve them better.

2. Examples of Large Administrative Units

The Connecticut trade schools were one of the first examples of large administrative units. These schools are distributed among the larger cities of the state. Tuition is free to residents of the state; to some extent schools specialize in certain occupational fields; a person residing within the state, desiring instruction in a specialized field, may obtain it regardless of the distance between his residence and the school offering the desired instruction.

In the state of New York, institutes of applied arts and sciences are being established, having as their principal objective preparation of young men and young women for positions technical and semiprofessional in character. They are to be located on a regional basis, and the program of any institute will be available to young persons throughout the state.⁴⁷

A law to establish regional vocational schools was enacted in Georgia in May, 1944. Six of these regional schools are contemplated. One of them is already in operation at Clarkesville. This school is utilizing the facilities of a former NYA project. A part of the students are transported to the school in buses, a part live in dormitories at the school. The tuition is free and there is a small charge for subsistence.

There are examples of large administrative units in Louisiana, Alabama, Texas, Oregon, Massachusetts, and several other states.

3. Transportation of Students and Payment of Student Allotments during Training

Society recognizes youth's right to an appropriate education. That such an education should include preparation for earning a living is ob-

⁴⁷ *Regents Plan for Postwar Education in the State of New York*. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, State Education Department, 1944.

vious. The trend is clearly in that direction and may be illustrated by the provisions of the Connecticut law pertaining to the transportation of students attending the Connecticut trade schools.

The board of education of any town shall provide the reasonable and necessary transportation of any pupil between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one years who shall reside with his parents or guardian in such town or who shall belong to such town, and who shall attend a trade school approved by the state board of education in another town, as a regular all-day pupil or as a high-school co-operative pupil, provided, when the cost of such transportation would exceed the sum of two hundred dollars per year, said board of education may elect to maintain such pupil in the town where he attends such trade school at a cost not to exceed two hundred dollars per year, and, for the cost of such maintenance, the town shall be reimbursed in the same manner and to the same extent as in the case of payment for transportation. The comptroller shall, annually, in July, upon application by the board of education of any such town or city, and upon voucher of the secretary of the state board of education, draw his order on the treasurer in favor of such town or city, for a sum equal to one-half the amount paid by it for transportation under the provisions of this section and under such rules as may be prescribed by the state board of education, provided not more than fifty dollars a year shall be paid by the state for the transportation of each pupil. Such sum shall be paid from funds available for high-school transportation. The number and names of the persons so conveyed to trade schools, the names of the trade schools which they have attended, and the amount paid by each such town or city for the conveyance of each person, shall, on or before the first day of July in each year, be certified, under oath, to the state board of education by the secretary of the board of education of the town or city in which the persons reside.⁴⁸

4. Vocational-Technical Training

The rapid expansion of technology is creating new needs for training. New materials, new processes and new products are being developed at increasing rates. There is a growing need for technicians and for training of pre-employment and supplementary types. For every college-trained engineer, according to information gathered in sixteen states,⁴⁹ 5.2 technicians are required.

The following classification of persons requiring vocational-technical training indicates some of these new fields:

⁴⁸ *Supplement to the Laws Relating to Education*, Sec. 130 f., p. 3. Hartford, Connecticut: Alonzo G. Grace, Secretary and Commissioner of Education, 1942.

⁴⁹ *Vocational-Technical Training for Industrial Occupations*. United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 228. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

- 1) Engineering aids and science aids, such as drafting specialists and laboratory assistants, requiring a year or two of pre-employment training
- 2) Technical specialists or limited technicians, such as certain types of inspectors, who can be trained in relatively short courses
- 3) Technical production and maintenance supervisors, who must have a background of industrial or trade experience plus supplementary vocational-technical and supervisory training
- 4) Semitechnical men, such as technical salesmen and factory accountants, who need technical training as well as that of some other types.

Much of this vocational-technical training will be offered in post-high-school years in trade and industrial schools, technical high schools, technical institutes, and junior colleges.

The co-operative plan, with half time in school and half time on the job appears to have a place of usefulness in vocational-technical training.

5. Diversified Occupations Training

This program had its beginning in 1934 in the southern states. In 1944 there were, in the southern states, 312 training centers enrolling 7,891 students and training for 184 occupations.

The following paragraph describes what is meant by diversified occupations training:

Briefly stated, the Co-operative Part-time Diversified Occupations Program operates as follows. High-school students of employable age are enrolled in the program and spend one-half of each school day in bona fide employment in their chosen trades or occupations for the purpose of securing organized instruction on the job as student-learners. Two periods of the remaining one-half day of the high-school time are devoted to directed and supervised study of technical and related subjects pertinent to the trades or occupations in which the students are engaged. The technical subjects, which are studied on an individual basis, are those subjects which have been approved by a craft or occupational committee as being pertinent. Related subjects are those which are taught on a group basis and include such social subjects as economics, civics, health, and safety. Stress is also placed upon the development of good work habits and attitudes. The remaining school time is devoted to the study of regular academic subjects. The pupils included in this type of program are usually high-school Juniors and Seniors, although boys and girls of sixteen years of age and over who can profit from the training are not excluded.⁵⁰

It should be made clear that each trainee is preparing for *one* occupation; the term "diversified" signifies that a diversity of occupations may be represented among a group of trainees. This program, because of its

⁵⁰ C. E. Rakestraw, "Co-operative Part-Time Diversified Occupations Program," *Occupations*, XVIII (March, 1940), 403-6.

special adaptability to small high schools, is likely to expand in smaller centers of population. However, it is also found in some larger centers.

6. Vocational Training for Women

The enrolment of women and girls in vocational schools is increasing. It has been common practice to maintain separate schools for them. Inasmuch as many women and girls are entering occupations formerly occupied exclusively by men and, because two separate schools are more expensive to build and maintain than a joint school, coeducational vocational schools are becoming more numerous.

7. Apprentice Training

Whether producing for war or for peace a large proportion of America's industrial workers must be skilled craftsmen proficient in all the practical and theoretical aspects of their work. To meet this demand for skilled workmen, apprentices are being trained in planned apprenticeship programs which include both job experience and classroom instruction.

An apprentice is a person sixteen years of age or more who is covered by a written agreement, which is registered with a state apprenticeship council in states where one exists, providing for not less than 4,000 hours of reasonably continuous employment and for his participation in an approved schedule of work experience through employment, supplemented by not less than 144 hours per year of related classroom instruction.

The Federal Committee on Apprenticeship of the War Manpower Commission has representatives in each state. These representatives comprise the Apprentice Training Service and have an advisory function. In most states, departments of labor have organized a state apprenticeship council. Most states also have an advisory committee representing vocational education. Sometimes the state apprenticeship council serves in a dual capacity, representing both the state department of labor and the state board for vocational education. Each local apprentice program has a joint apprenticeship committee and an advisory committee on which both employers and labor are represented.

There were 39,000 apprentices in vocational schools in 1943. The number declined in 1944 because of war conditions. The probability is that there will be an increasing number after the war, especially in maintenance work on production lines. Heretofore apprentice programs have been most common in larger centers of population where groups of apprentices could be organized; in the future more attention will be paid to isolated individuals or small groups of apprentices.

8. Postponement of Training

There is a tendency to defer the time of vocational training until the later part of the secondary-school period. Moving vocational training up to the last two years of the high school is common. High-school graduation is often specified as a requirement for entrance to vocational schools. There is an observable trend toward post-high-school vocational training.

9. The High-School Diploma

Many trade schools have become vocational high schools. The high-school diploma as an entrance requirement to business and industry is assuming greater importance than formerly. In addition, the diploma and the training it signifies prepare many young persons to continue training in higher institutions.

10. Occupational Guidance Services

An adequate guidance program has the following characteristics:

1. An accumulation of information which will furnish each student dependable evidence of his own aptitudes, abilities, and related achievements (including school and work experience), interests, and other significant characteristics and personal data
2. Provision of the information which will furnish each student dependable evidence of available occupational opportunities, and the requirements of those opportunities, based on national, regional, and local data and of the available educational and training opportunities and their requirements
3. Provision of competent counseling services to help each student make an appraisal of the facts under "1" and "2," to help students in reviewing and revising plans, and to help them solve current personal problems
4. Provision of adjustment services to help individuals get started in the next educational step in their plans, to get started in vocational training, and to secure temporary and regular employment
5. Provision of follow-up services to help individuals make adjustments in their relations with employers and fellow workers, to follow lines of job progress, and to study the experiences of those who have left school

Before the war, guidance programs were designed largely for the in-school groups. The trend now is to extend these services to the out-of-school and adult groups. Thus, guidance services are now contemplated in relation to persons considering vocational-technical courses, courses for out-of-school youth, and evening courses for adults. School leavers and persons who have not attended the school in the service area in which they live should be able to obtain these services. Those who are returning from military service should have special attention. Even for out-of-school persons, guidance services should center in the public schools.

though other agencies should co-ordinate their efforts with those of the schools.

11. Continuing School Attendance while Working

A recent survey of eighteen school systems shows arrangements some schools have made for students who wish to contribute to the war effort and at the same time continue in school. The final paragraph in the article pictures this development well:

The enthusiasm with which most schools are welcoming the opportunity for pupils to secure work experience under the motivation of contributing to the winning of the war is unmistakable. One school superintendent in addressing pupils says: "The four-four plan operates in every high school in our city—four hours in school, four hours on a real job at standard wages. High schools will arrange your study and work. The war means you must carry a job while you go to school." Another writes: "In a sense the present handicap can be turned to an advantage if the schools, parents, and employers can work together." Still another, this one a project supervisor, has this to say: "We have not had such an opportunity in years to direct youth into employment experiences in line with their vocational outlook."⁵¹

Co-ordination of school instruction and job experience is obtained only in some cases and thus the optimum benefit is often missed if the person is looking toward this work as a career. Of course, the experience of engaging in wartime activities has many values for youth whether or not co-ordination is obtained. It is a safe prediction that this arrangement will continue in many school systems.

12. Vacation Work Experience

The following excerpt from the same article describes a vacation work-experience program in Berks County, Pennsylvania:

This county has an organization set up for the purpose of relating school attendance and employment to one another in order that the best results may develop both for the pupil and for the community. The "School Project" is under the direction of a project committee on which are representatives of education, agriculture, business, and industry. The six project division leaders working under the general supervision of this committee are assigned each to one of the following areas: education, agriculture, business, industry, recreation and health, and promotion. The leader assigned to promotion also serves as project secretary.

Through magazine articles, county institutes, teacher clubs, and visits to homes, the committee endeavors to get pupils and teachers into work where they

⁵¹ Carl A. Jessen, "Continuing School Attendance While Working," *Education for Victory*, II (February 3, 1944), 1-5.

can make their maximum contribution to the war effort without impairing the educational effort. . . . During May, June, and July, 1943, the committee "directed the placement of all teachers and pupils available in local industries, agriculture, and business. These placements were made with definite promise of employers that pupils would be returned to school in September." Then early in September school administrators throughout the county were asked to report on two situations:

- 1) A report originating in homerooms, on the employment experience (type, for whom, length of time, rate of pay, satisfaction with jobs, etc.) of all pupils in Grades VII to XII.
- 2) Information concerning such part-time employment as will prevail during the school year ahead.⁵²

It is estimated that 800,000 nonfarm, in-school students worked on farms during the summer of 1943. The relationship of the schools to these youth and those in other occupations has been somewhat indirect during vacation months. It is conceivable that school systems in the future, recognizing the attainable education values, will employ supervisory staffs during summer months, for the purpose of supervising the work experience of youth, not only in agriculture but in other fields, and providing school credit for work experience satisfactorily completed and related to school work in a variety of occupations.

13. The United States Employment Service and Vocational Schools

Before the war pre-employment trainees were commonly placed in their first job by the placement bureau of the vocational school. During the war, this placement was taken over by the United States Employment Service, which operates under the direction of the War Manpower Commission. Such a move was necessary in wartime; the employment service and the vocational schools were compelled to work closely together.

It is probable that at some future date the supply of labor will approximate or exceed the demand, and the compulsory features of the present relationship will then be relaxed. In the meantime, the schools and the United States Employment Service have learned to work together. It is conceivable that when the manpower shortage has passed its critical period, the United States Employment Service will refer applicants for jobs to the vocational schools for training. When the relationships become voluntary rather than compulsory, it is likely that the bond between the two agencies will be further strengthened.

⁵² *Ibid.*

V. PROBABLE POSTWAR DEVELOPMENTS IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The indications are that vocational education will be extended to areas where it is not now available. Enlarged administrative units will be the important factor in this expansion. Also many public school systems will enter the field of vocational education for the first time.

Training will be established in hitherto untouched occupational fields. The development of vocational-technical training is an example of this trend. Features like the diversified occupations plan will extend opportunities for training in these new fields and beyond the large city school systems.

New groups of people will be reached. For example, the War Training program and the Food Production War Training program have been available to millions who have never before experienced any type of formal vocational training. These persons will be favorably disposed toward a program of retraining after the war. Women who are entering a wide variety of occupations new to them can be expected to desire vocational training.

Vocational education will have to become more flexible than ever before. It must meet the needs of *more people in more occupations under a wider variety of conditions*. Demands for courses of different lengths, for co-operative plans with business and industry, and for extension of training to smaller population centers and rural areas show that vocational-education programs must become increasingly flexible.

The quality of vocational education will continue to improve. There are several indications that it will meet the needs for training with increasing effectiveness. Apprentice training and the diversified occupations program will have further development. Co-operation of business and industry with the schools will be strengthened. Training will be deferred so that higher age groups having more immediate needs can be served. Trainees will be encouraged to advance to as high a level of training as their abilities warrant.

Guidance service will be available to youth and adults in increasing quantity and quality. Programs of part-time work for high-school students and vacation work experience, largely under the auspices of the public schools, will serve as very effective vocational guidance. Vocational schools in co-operation with the United States Employment Service will place and follow up trainees more effectively than heretofore.

The benefits of vocational education will not be limited to a few months or years but will be available throughout the productive life of each individual.

CHAPTER III

THE INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF A LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

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The American public schools are unique among national systems of education in their reliance on state and local control and in their stimulation of local initiative. In a very real sense, we have no national school system. Instead, we have forty-eight state systems. That is, education is a state function rather than a federal function. No federal agency has any authority to impose any uniformity in educational programs among the states or to make any specific requirements which the states would be obliged to observe. Moreover, education has thus far remained outside the rapidly increasing scope of federal control in this country and will, in all probability, continue to do so.

But reliance on local control in these state school systems goes even further. The state legislatures theoretically have full control of all local school districts, but they have seldom prescribed any particular form of internal organization for a school or school system. The age limits for free tuition have usually been set, but the division between elementary and secondary education is not often established by statute. Neither have any rigid definitions of elementary and secondary education been written into the general school law.

Every state has some form of state department of education, but in only a few states does the state department have and use the power to control in any detail the internal organization of local school systems. In general, local boards of education have been given considerable freedom to determine the internal organization of the schools under their control. The one limitation most commonly found is that which prohibits local boards from providing free schooling for persons under five or over twenty years of age.

Two major sections are included in this chapter. The first deals with the organization of a school or a local school system. The second deals with the organization of staff services.

I. ORGANIZATION OF A SCHOOL OR A LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

In this section we shall consider, first, the factors which determine organization; second, the patterns of organization; and third, some criteria of organization.

1. Factors Which Determine Organization

a. Definition of Functions. When a new school or local school system is being organized, it is easy to make certain that functions determine structure. In other words, a new unit can and ought to have a functional organization. In setting up such a unit, whether it be a large city system like Gary, Indiana, or a smaller village system like Norris, Tennessee, or a new vocational high school like Timken Vocational School, Canton, Ohio, or a new elementary school like Glencoe, Illinois, the first step is the definition of functions. In the four examples which have been cited, the functions were clearly defined, and then an organization properly adapted to these functions was carefully planned.

In Gary the functions of the school system determined also the internal organization of the individual schools. Here we find schools which provide in a single plant for all grades including the high school. In the first eight grades the platoon system is used in order to provide expert teaching of the special subjects. The physical plant is therefore designed to house all age groups and to provide various types of special rooms for the elementary grades as well as for the high school.

So far, so good. But what happens when new functions require attention or when old functions are being redefined in a long-established school system? Suppose the main emphasis shifts from general education to vocational education, or vice versa, after the physical plant has been developed in harmony with the former objectives. Or suppose the platoon system proves to be unsatisfactory in the primary grades. What can be done? The organization, which was originally set up in terms of the functions, as defined, has been embodied in the physical plant. Unless major alterations are made, changes in organization, no matter how desirable, can now be effected only within the limitations of the existing plant.

It is, therefore, clear that organization, once established and provided with buildings, tends to hinder change in functions. It is equally true that personnel selected for a particular organization and suited to the functions of that organization may encounter difficult problems of adjustment to new demands upon the schools.

Since local school systems are seldom created *de novo*, and since the individual school, even in a newly developed community, is ordinarily planned with reference to other similar units in the school system and is expected to conform to some established pattern of organization, such

as the 6-3-3 or the 8-4-2 form, it is clear that the most serious problems of reorganization with which we are concerned arise within school systems which are going concerns. New services frequently are not attempted when their introduction would reduce available funds for standard services which have long been provided. In general, new functions or redefined functions of the schools are faced with limitations set by available personnel, physical facilities, and financial resources.

b. Development of a State System of Education. In the introductory section of this chapter attention is called to the fact that education in this country is not a federal function but a state function, and that the state allocates to the local districts certain responsibilities for establishing and maintaining local school systems. The sum total of these local school systems within a state does not, however, comprise the state school system. Certain of the state's responsibilities for education cannot be allocated to local school districts.

For example, each of the forty-eight states has made certain provisions for college and professional education on a state-wide basis. Similarly the states have provided state schools for children and youth who have special handicaps. Sometimes schools maintained as state schools serve designated areas, as do for example, the vocational schools in Connecticut, and the teachers colleges in some of the states. They, therefore, introduce a "regional" level into the state school system, intermediate between the local school district and the state as a whole.

It is obvious, therefore, that the internal organization of a local school system depends initially on the allocation of responsibility by the state. Does the state reserve to itself the responsibility for establishing and operating all educational institutions above those of secondary school grade? If so, there will be no junior colleges in local schools. Does the state offer financial aid to certain strategically located communities for the establishment of schools for deaf and hard-of-hearing children, such schools to be open to all children of a given area? If so, there may be area schools for this special purpose, locally administered but financed by the state. To guarantee that all educational services needed in the state shall be provided where they are needed and with the degree of economy which the people of the state have a right to expect, each state develops a concept of a state system and with the co-operation of local districts gives it a basis of reality.

2. Patterns of Organization

The main divisions of education in the United States are generally known as elementary, secondary, and higher. Within these divisions severally, various patterns of organization have been projected from

time to time, certain ones in recognition of changing concepts with respect to the nature or functions of a given phase of education, others with the view of adapting the procedures and facilities of the schools to changing conditions and new responsibilities. Some of these plans of organization have been so widely accepted as to be regarded as standard practice. Many were tried and discarded for one reason or another. At any given time there are numerous reports of innovations being tried experimentally. Several significant modifications of earlier practice are currently the subject of discussion in terms of the more or less adequate testing and evaluation to which they have been subjected. Moreover, new proposals are being advanced in anticipation of obligatory extensions of school services and desirable curriculum reconstruction in the immediate postwar period. The internal organization of the local school system and of the separate schools or divisions within the school system is, therefore, a problem of major importance at the present time.

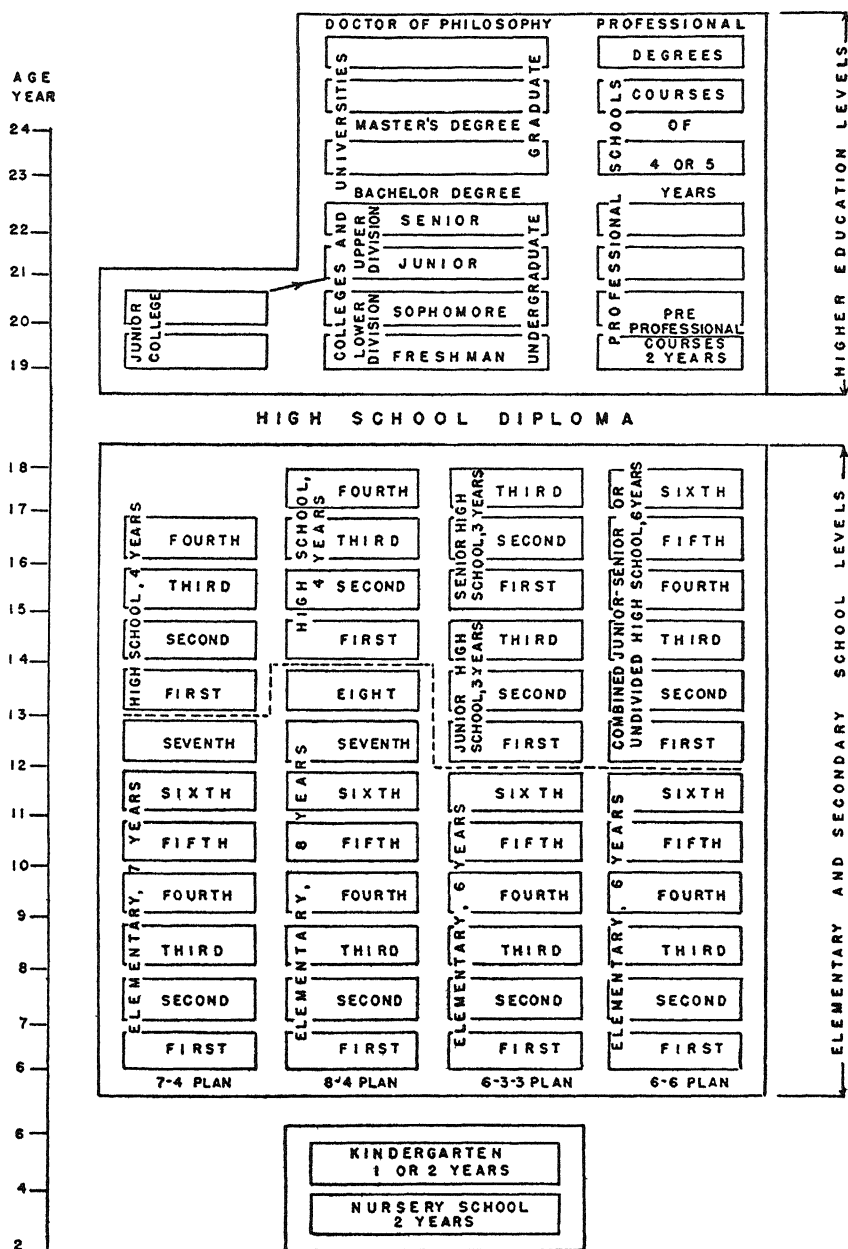
Writing in 1939, Walter S. Deffenbaugh, Chief, American Schools Division, United States Office of Education, describes the main patterns of organization in the school systems of the United States.

The schools may, in general, be classified on three levels—elementary, secondary, and higher. . . . The first opportunity for education is in the nursery school or in the kindergarten. This opportunity, though, is not available for all children since there are comparatively few nursery schools and since many school districts do not maintain kindergartens. . . . For a large majority of children the first opportunity for education is in the first grade of the elementary school. . . . There are usually eight grades in the elementary school above the kindergarten but the number varies from five to eight, according to the organization. . . . In the school systems having seven or eight elementary-school grades the elementary school is followed by a four-year high school, which is the predominant type of high-school organization. . . . The reorganized high schools are of different types of grade organization. The most prevalent of these are the segregated junior high school consisting of Grades VII, VIII, and IX; the segregated senior high school consisting of Grades X, XI, and XII; the junior-senior high school consisting of Grades VII, VIII, and IX and of X, XI, and XII, respectively; and the undivided six-year high school consisting of Grades VII to XII, inclusive. Corresponding reorganizations have been effected in school systems having eleven grades above the kindergarten.¹

These patterns of organization and the relationships among the different units constituting the educational system are presented graphically in Chart 1. After discussing briefly some of the problems involved in

¹ *Education in the United States of America*, p. 49. United States Office of Education Miscellaneous Bulletin No. 3, 1939. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

CHART 1*



ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

* From *Education in the United States of America*, op. cit., p. 50.

setting up a new pattern of organization, we shall submit an organization chart that embodies the newer tendencies. This chart (see Chart 2, p. 109) is presented as a tentative proposal for use as a desirable pattern of reorganization of school systems, subject to such modifications as may be required by local needs and limiting conditions.

Before considering the problems relating to the organization of schools, some observations regarding terminology may not be inappropriate. At the different levels of education, elementary, secondary, and higher, various types of schools are maintained and different names are ascribed to them. In some instances, the name of a particular type of school reflects the kind of training provided as well as the level of advancement in the educational system, as, for example, the technical high school. While this name is applied to many schools in which vocational curriculums leading toward industrial occupations are prominently featured, it is not the only name by which such schools are known. Also, it is a familiar fact that similar offerings are commonly found in other secondary schools; and there are many courses in the technical high schools which are of like content with the basic courses of curriculums emphasizing the distinguishing educational offerings of other schools. It is significant also that the different curriculums of a particular school are directed toward different ultimate outcomes. Using the technical high school as a further example, some curriculums are designed to prepare students for advanced study, say in the various branches of engineering, while others are primarily terminal in point of purpose; and among the terminal programs, some are based on a four-year plan of organization, while others may be completed in two years. These variable programs serve the obvious purpose of enabling the school to meet the needs of all classes of pupils.

The continuing experimentation with the organization of educational programs has resulted also in some ambiguity in relation to the names employed to distinguish the classes of schools designed to implement these programs at the different levels of scholastic training. As is shown very clearly in Chart 1, local school systems, usually consisting of twelve grades, are organized in different ways. Many of them have two major divisions based on the commonly recognized distinction between elementary and secondary education. The lower division, regarded as the area of elementary instruction, is established in a separate school known as the elementary school, the upper division being separately constituted and called the high school. But in some such communities the elementary school provides for the first eight grades of instruction, while in other systems only six grades are allocated to the elementary school, the six higher grades being comprised in the program administered by the

high school. That is, in one of the illustrations here noted the seventh and eighth grades are a part of the program administered by the elementary school, whereas under the second plan of organization these two grades are identified with the high school. In still other school systems an intermediate unit has been established to facilitate provisions for certain educational objectives which are thought to be obstructed by the two-divisional organization. The most common name of this intermediate school is the junior high school. As noted in chapter i, however, the name is applied to schools in which the programs, in different localities, comprise varying segments of the intermediate portion of the over-all program of the school system. Other examples of irregularities in the organization of schools of a common name might be cited, but these are sufficient to indicate the difficulties involved in formulating a scheme of organization which might be presumed to represent the best thought with respect to the types of schools to be maintained in different communities.

There is one other source of confusion in terminology, however, which should be noted. While the elementary school is very generally understood to comprise at least the first six grades of the school program, there are certain distinguishing characteristics of the work of the first three grades which have prompted the use of the term *primary grades* in written or verbal reference to this unit of the school program. Probably because these grades are so uniformly housed in the same building with the higher grades of the elementary division, the term *primary school* has not been generally used in this country to designate the unit of organization comprising the introductory stages of instruction. In light of the practice in Britain and other English-speaking countries, the expression *primary school* would appear to be a desirable substitution for elementary school in the terminology of American education, especially in view of the accepted usage of secondary school as the term denoting the general class of organization units into which pupils are inducted on completion of the first major division of the educational program. The effective obstacle to this change is the long-time and almost unexceptionable use of the term *elementary* in referring to the lower division of graded school systems in this country. There is perhaps sufficient license for applying the terms *primary school* and *intermediate school* to the rather clearly differentiated segments of the elementary division known respectively as the primary and the intermediate grades.

3. Current Problems in School Organization

Many of the problems relating to the organization of local school systems are of special interest at the present time in view of the probable

need for extension or reorganization of school programs to meet postwar demands. Some of the questions now being raised are indicated in the following paragraphs.

a. *Should the Local School Organization Include a Nursery School?* The values of the nursery school under proper conditions and with competent staff have been well established. Children of age three and above benefit in many ways in such a school. Conversely, the deficiencies and defects of children who have not had nursery-school experience indicate the need for a preprimary unit. In spite of the evidence in favor of this downward extension of the school, progress has been very slow. In many states the law is silent on the problem. In one state recently a group of fifty persons, including leaders from the teacher-training institutions of the state and representative superintendents from the local school systems, approved the downward extension to include four-year-old children but refused to go any further because the cost of such an extension would be too great a drain on the resources of local school districts. When the state legislature acts on this proposed change, it is doubtful whether even the limited extension downward to include four-year-old children will be authorized.

Nevertheless, considerable progress has been made in recent years in the establishment of nursery schools as a part of the primary grades of public schools. Under a plan developed by the United States Office of Education, and with funds provided by the Work Projects Administration, nursery schools were established in the public schools for the children of persons on relief. Profiting by that experience, and with federal funds made available under the terms of the Community Facilities Act, public schools have more recently provided nursery schools for the children of employed women, in that way assisting materially in the release of persons needed in war activities. By the summer of 1944 approximately 54,000 children were attending these nursery schools or child-care centers.

In this connection it is interesting to note the British experience with nursery schools. Local education authorities in Britain now have the power to provide such schools. But the recent British White Paper, entitled *Educational Reconstruction*, proposed to substitute for the present power a duty to provide such nursery schools as in the opinion of the Central Authority may be necessary. The White Paper continues:

It is now considered that the self-contained nursery school, which forms a transition from home to school, is the most suitable type of provision for children under five. Such schools are needed in all districts, as even when children come from good homes they can derive much benefit, both educational and phys-

ical, from attendance at a nursery school. . . . It is, however, in the poorer parts of the large cities that nursery schools are especially necessary.²

b. *Should the Elementary School Be Divided into a Lower Unit and an Upper Unit?* At least one city school system in America is now making plans for developing the lower unit of the elementary school into a *neighborhood school* to provide for ages four, five, six, and seven. Final plans have not been formulated, but the guidance and curriculum departments are now working on a curriculum geared to the needs of early childhood with features now found in the kindergarten and the nursery school. These schools will be small, with perhaps 125 to 150 pupils. The building housing a neighborhood school will resemble a home more than the traditional school. Forty-five square feet of floor space for each child is being considered. Several "neighborhood schools" will feed into a single upper unit of the elementary school, for pupils eight to eleven years of age.

The arguments for the separate organization of the primary grades are chiefly educational, while the arguments against it are chiefly financial. The provision of more adequate floor space and the use of home-like furnishings will make for a better transition from home to school. The modification of the curriculum to provide for more stress on development of good social attitudes and habits with less emphasis on reading, writing, and arithmetic for the six-, seven- and eight-year age groups will make for much better adjustment to group life. On the other hand, the cost per pupil for such a school would be higher. Any unit with fewer than four hundred pupils has usually been found to be more expensive per child enrolled than larger units in the same system. If the classes were smaller, as they should be, the cost per pupil would be still further increased. The compromise position is well stated in the British White Paper, as follows:

It is generally accepted that, wherever numbers make it possible, there should be separate schools for infants and juniors, respectively, because of the different methods of approach appropriate to the training of the younger and older children in the primary stage.³

c. *Should Grades VII and VIII Be Included in the Elementary School or in the Secondary School?* In 1910 a new pattern of organization was originated in Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California. This was the origin of the junior high school. To the proponents of the junior high

² *Educational Reconstruction*, p. 8. Presented by the President of the Board of Education to Parliament by Command of His Majesty. London: H. M. Stationery Office, 1943.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

school, it seems that the new pattern is already established as a permanent part of secondary education. But some careful students of the effects of the junior high school organization ask some difficult questions. Why is the end of elementary education placed at the end of Grade VI? If adolescence be the answer, they point out that most seventh-grade pupils, especially the boys, are preadolescents. If the need for special teachers for each subject be the answer, they inquire what is taught in Grade VII that could not be taught by regular classroom teachers with the same kind of help from special teachers that is now usually provided in undepartmentalized elementary schools. Moreover, they produce much evidence to show that the pupils in Grade VII are overstimulated by the change from one teacher in Grade VI to eight or ten in Grade VII. They point out that many parents feel that their boys and girls would be better off to remain in the simpler environment of the elementary school for another year. If the availability of shops and home economics laboratories be urged as a reason for sending the seventh-grade pupils to junior high school, they answer that such facilities should be available to fifth- and sixth-grade pupils too. Therefore, they propose that the elementary school should provide for the seventh-grade pupils whatever they need rather than to send them into secondary school too soon.

The argument involves other considerations, however, which have to do with available buildings and the economical use of space. In some communities the elementary schools may be crowded. Then the new buildings to be provided for an increasing school population can be provided more economically in large units for junior high schools than in the form of additions to a large number of elementary schools. The answer, of course, is that the pattern of organization for placing Grade VII in the junior high school should rest on educational considerations rather than on the argument that economy favors their going to junior high school. This appears even more clearly when it is pointed out that in most cities elementary-school enrolments have been dropping, and, therefore, the argument for economy in such a situation would result in retaining the seventh grade in the elementary school. Obviously, the pattern of organization must be determined on educational grounds.

On the other side of the argument, those who believe that Grade VII should be in the junior high school point to the fact that the boys and girls prefer it that way. They further show that special teachers for each subject make for better teaching and superior achievements.

This problem has been discussed at length to show that the evidence for or against a given organization tends to be largely grounded in opinion. Any objective evidence known to the author is entirely inconclusive. His experience leads him to observe that a capable staff of teachers will

achieve the desired results whether Grade VII in a given school system is in the elementary school or in the junior high school. Moreover, the objections to either pattern can be met by capable teachers. If the argument for retaining Grade VII in the elementary school is inconclusive, it is even more difficult to prove that Grade VIII should be retained.

It is interesting to note that the recent British White Paper, *Educational Reconstruction*, proposes a new pattern of organization for the British schools. Before describing the proposed changes, reference is made to the fact that many children over eleven have not enjoyed the advantages of education in a separate school, but have remained to the leaving age of fourteen in schools which cater to an age-range of five to fourteen. The report continues:

The principle of reorganization as advocated in the Hadow Report, i.e., the provision of separate schools for all children over eleven, is accepted as an education axiom, but it is far from being translated into actuality over the country as a whole. . . . The completion of this reorganization is the most crying need in the field of whole-time education.⁴

While it is impossible to make any comparison on grade level between British and American schools, it is clear that when we have Grade VII in the separate junior high school, we are actually taking children thirteen years old, on the average, to separate schools, while the Hadow report proposes to place twelve-year-old children in separate schools. Perhaps we need to restudy the organization at the junior high school level, taking into account the values and failures which have been noted during these three decades.

The plan of reorganization in a local school system should be determined by the local board of education rather than by state requirements. Local autonomy in matters concerning which scientific evidence is lacking is certainly to be preferred to any centralized control. Whether or not Grades VII and VIII will finally be included in the elementary school depends on the gradual formation of public opinion on the issue. To a marked degree boards of education are inclined to be slow to make fundamental changes in organization. This much can be said: it is important that pupils be given the opportunities and experiences their particular level of development requires, and that the school be so organized as to meet these needs.

d. Should Grades XIII and XIV Be Included in the Secondary School?
In many states provision has been made for an extension upward to include two additional years in the public school program. The opinion seems to be gaining ground that the work of the first two years of college

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

or university is essentially secondary in nature rather than higher. The recent emphasis on general education in the lower division of the college with the consequent postponement of specialization to the upper division and graduate school similarly emphasizes the break between the lower and the upper divisions.

e. Should Junior Colleges Belong to Local School Systems or Should They Be Included in the State System of Higher Education? If Grades XIII and XIV are essentially secondary in nature, the question still remains to be considered whether they should be locally supported and controlled or be regarded as state institutions with state support and control. The trend in those states where junior colleges have made the most substantial growth is toward a middle position. In these states the junior college is regarded as a part of the local school system, subject to the control of the local board of education, but a large part of the support comes from the state. This tendency is in harmony with the rapid growth of the principle of state support of the total program of education to the extent of guaranteeing the total cost of a minimum program above the amount raised by a specified local tax rate on an equalized assessed valuation.

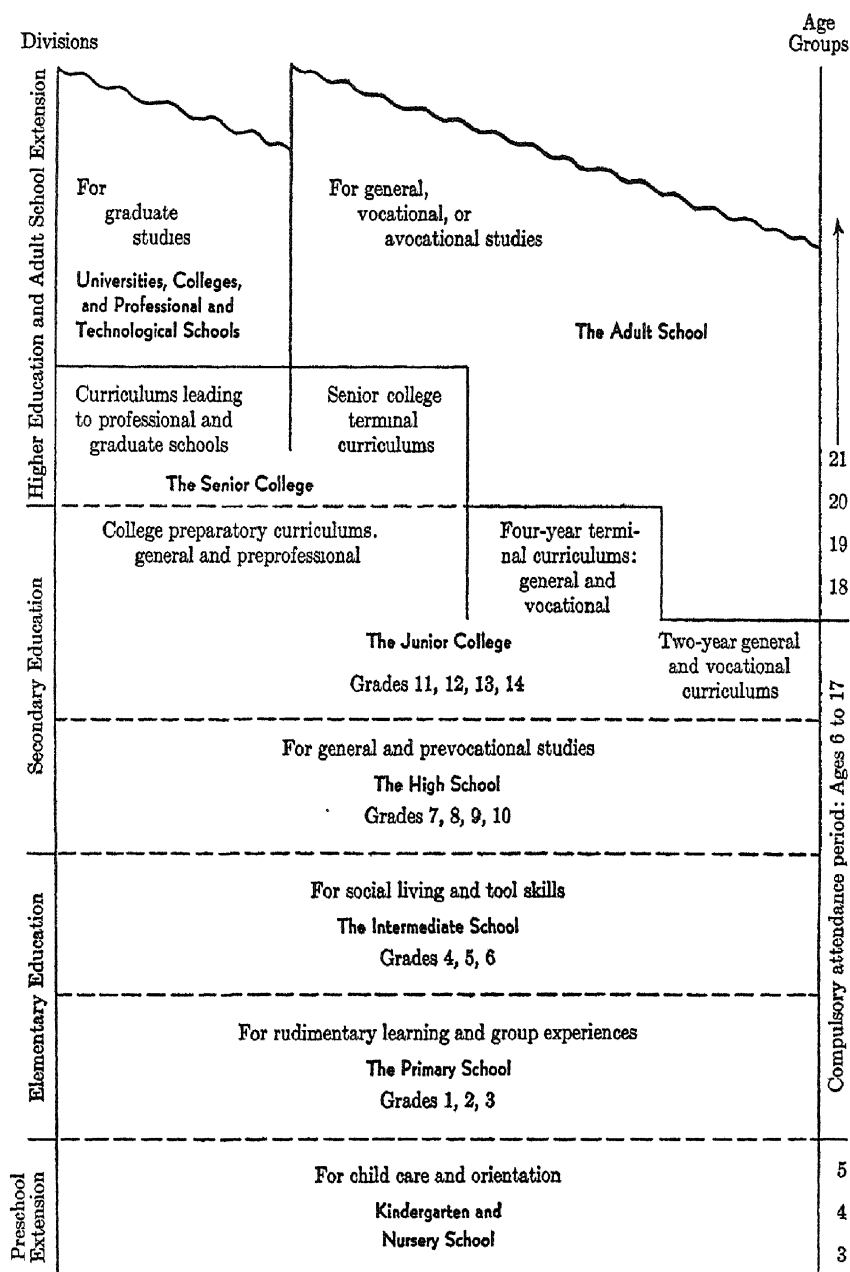
f. Should the Secondary School Be Divided into a Lower and an Upper Unit? The National Survey of Secondary Education reported in 1932 that the advantages claimed for the separate units known as junior and senior high schools were not apparent as compared with the combined junior-senior high school or the undivided six-year high school. In fact, the size of the school seemed to be more important than the number of years included. Another factor enters when Grades XIII and XIV are included. It seems probable that Grades VII to X, inclusive, should be housed separately from Grades XI to XIV. The length of period and the general operation of the school should be adjusted to the younger pupils in a way that would be practically impossible in an undivided school.

4. Proposed Plan of Organization

We come now to the proposed pattern of organization. Without any attempt to provide for the inevitable variations in actual practice we shall show in chart form (see Chart 2) the pattern of organization which seems to be emerging from the experimental work that has been done in various laboratory schools and in certain public school systems. During the next two or three decades the new pattern will be gradually shaped up. It may, of course, be quite different from that which is here described.

The elementary division will comprise two units, the lower unit for pupils six to eight years old, or those belonging in Grades I to III, and, where conditions permit, will include nursery school and kindergarten for children three to five years of age. This unit may be called the *primary*

CHART 2



school. The upper unit will include Grades IV to VI and will provide for ages nine to eleven, inclusive. It may be called the *intermediate school*.

The secondary school will include two units. The lower unit will include Grades VII to X and will provide for ages twelve to fifteen, inclusive. It may be called the *high school*. The upper unit will include Grades XI to XIV and will provide for ages sixteen to nineteen, inclusive. It may be called the *junior college*.

The higher schools will be differentiated as to function. They will include the *senior college*, *technical schools*, *professional schools*, and *adult schools*. They will provide for age twenty and upwards, as determined by their respective functions.

5. Criteria of School Organization

Several criteria of organization have been presented, at least by implication, in the foregoing discussion of the internal organization of a school or a local school system. Briefly stated, they are as follows:

- 1) Organization is suited to the functions served.
- 2) Organization is flexible and responsive to new demands.
- 3) Organization is changed as established functions change.
- 4) Organization makes adequate provision for all groups and for all ages.
- 5) The pattern of organization in the local school system is determined with due consideration for local needs.

6. School Time in Relation to Organization

In the period since 1870, while school enrolments were increasing at a rapid rate, the average school term has been lengthened from about six and a half months to eight and three-quarters months. In the same period the number of days attended annually by each pupil enrolled has increased from 78 to 152. This means that more children are attending school, and they are attending for longer periods.

There are other changes in school sessions which appear to be significant. The widespread acceptance of extra-curriculum activities as worth-while experiences which should be available to all secondary-school pupils led first to a lengthening of the time pupils stayed at the school, and later to changes in the length of the school day, in order to incorporate such opportunities as integral parts of the school program. Within the elementary school the need to care for children whose mothers are employed and who are not at home to supervise them before and after school and on Saturdays and holidays has led to the development of educational-recreational programs at the school. These programs, sometimes called "extended school services," and now available to approximately fifty thousand children, have shown the way to provision of richer

opportunities for children than the usual elementary-school day, week, and year can provide.

Another influence leading to modification of school sessions has been the recent emphasis on work experience and on community service activities. Many schools have arranged for young persons to assist in public service or on paid jobs, such as picking fruit or vegetables, and have modified school schedules as found necessary. This experience may profitably lead to the regularizing of opportunities during the school week or in the summertime for young people to gain worth-while work experience properly related to other school activities and under appropriate supervision.

Other influences leading to changes in school sessions include the greater interest in school camps, experience with accelerated terms, and increasing demand for night schools and for daytime opportunities for adults who work at night. Altogether it is probable that in the years immediately ahead, the school day, week, and year will change considerably.

II. THE ORGANIZATION OF SERVICES AND STAFF

In this section we shall consider, first, the organization of administrative and supervisory services; second, organization to facilitate staff participation in policy making; third, criteria of staff organization.

1. Organization of Administrative and Supervisory Services

The administrative services of the local school system include the educational, custodial, maintenance, business, and financial phases. No division of opinion exists on the soundness of the principle that all administrative services should be under a single chief administrative officer. The rare exceptions in practice are fewer and fewer in number. In the larger city and county systems administrative assistants are provided for the various phases of the work.

Similarly, sound organization of the individual school requires that the principal shall be the responsible head of his school. Not only the educational program, the library, and the cafeteria, but also the custodial and maintenance services and the business and financial affairs of the school should all come under the control of the principal. The administrative assistants in the superintendent's office and the superintendent himself work through the principal rather than directly with the personnel of the various services. On the other hand, the principal works directly with every individual who is assigned for either full- or part-time service in his building.

In addition to the administrative staff, many school systems provide supervisors and directors of special phases of the educational program.

These members of the central office staff have sometimes acquired administrative controls over principals and teachers. In some instances they work directly with teachers and by-pass the principal's office entirely. Such procedures lead to confusion and conflict of authority. The sound concept of function of supervisors and directors is readily apparent when they are regarded as teachers assigned to help teachers, but always with the full knowledge and consent of the principal, or, better yet, on his specific request.

This limitation on the services rendered by supervisors and directors may seem to some such members of the staff to leave them with no clearly defined duties. This could happen as the result of failure on the part of the chief administrative officer of the school system to exercise his proper function in relation to the educational program of the schools. Obviously he must take the lead in making sure that the services of supervisors and directors of instruction are used in each school. Here lies the problem of insisting upon uniformity in respect to those matters where uniformity has been recognized as necessary. In many matters the individual school may properly have practically complete autonomy within very broad limits of general policy.

Within the individual secondary school, unless it is a small unit, certain administrative assistants must be provided. The assistant principal, the deans, the vocational counselors, the department chairmen, and, to a limited extent, the homeroom teachers, all exercise administrative functions. As administrators, they are properly accountable solely to the principal of the school. They should never go over the head of the principal to anyone in the central office. They should be appointed and removed or reassigned on the principal's recommendation, in accordance with the established tenure regulations of the school system. The right of appeal to a superior administrative officer should be protected in order that no injustices may be done. Such appeal should be in writing and should be addressed to the proper administrative officer. Usually it is better to ask for transfer to another school or for release from the administrative assignment.

2. Organization for Staff Participation in Policy-making

So far in this section we have assumed that certain policies are in effect. We come now to the question, "Who makes the administrative policies?" The answer is of major importance. The confusion of thinking at this point is widespread, even among school administrators. We shall, therefore, take time to analyze the problem carefully.

In the last analysis the local board of education makes all policies within the limits prescribed by state law or by the regulations of the state

department of education. These policies are sometimes defined in formal by-laws or in a set of rules and regulations adopted by the board. They are sometimes formulated in separate resolutions adopted by the board from time to time. In many instances, they are implied by specific decisions of the board which become precedents for later decisions.

Sound policy-making by the board recognizes two kinds of policy-making. The first kind, well exemplified by the annual budget and the appropriation resolution based thereon, must always be determined by the board, presumably with the advice of the superintendent. The second kind, perhaps best exemplified by the detailed courses of study for a school system, must be subject to review and appraisal by the board at any time, but such policies should be delegated rather completely to the professional staff of the schools for determination. The term "course of study" is sometimes used, as in the Ohio School Code, to refer to the program of studies. The general structure of the curriculum of all schools in Ohio must be "prescribed" by the local board of education, subject to the approval of the state superintendent of public instruction. The last session of the state legislature wisely repealed all but one of the numerous curriculum prescriptions which were formerly in the School Code. The single remaining state prescription is a year of American history and civics in the high school. The detailed courses of study, as distinguished from the program of studies, should be determined by the professional staff without formal approval by the board, but always subject to critical review and appraisal by the board.

The first type of policy-making is exemplified by budgetary policies. Further analysis of the budgetary policies of the board of education shows that the law usually designates a budget officer, in Ohio the clerk-treasurer, but ordinarily the superintendent, who prepares the budget and submits it to the board. Under the provisions of the Ohio statute, the board is required to hold a public hearing in July on the budget for the following calendar year. The budget then goes to the county budget commission for approval. Finally the board adopts an appropriations resolution after the first of January. This resolution must conform to the certificate of total available funds from the county budget commission. It may be revised by transfer within the total available funds, and, on receipt of an amended certificate from the county budget commission, it may be revised upward to a new total. It is supplemented by approved pay rolls and by approved lists of bills from month to month for expenses not covered by the pay rolls. In this appropriations resolution all current operating costs, all capital outlay, and all debt service must be included. The state auditor's office is charged with responsibility for auditing all financial records of the local school districts of the state. The state ex-

aminer checks carefully to make sure that no unauthorized expenditure has been made and that no expenditure has been made for an item of expense in excess of the legal powers of the board. Thus, the public funds are safeguarded. In this process there is a place for participation by the staff only in an advisory capacity or in relation to minor details within the budget. This procedure differs from that in most localities, where the budget is prepared by the superintendent in consultation with principals and heads of departments and then presented to the board.

In other words, the designation of a specific board or official as administratively responsible does not necessarily mean that the school staff has no part in budget-making or in the determination of other administrative policies. On the contrary, in many schools procedures are being worked out to secure the participation of the staff in policy-making. For example, in Nashville, Tennessee, the Board of Education has recently adopted a plan whereby the City Teachers Association elects three of its members as a panel to meet with the Board, so as to present the teachers' viewpoint on matters affecting the schools' efficiency and the welfare of teachers. The superintendent has endorsed the plan as a step toward democratic administration.⁵

Now let us examine the second type of policy-making. In setting up the detailed courses of study, the professional staff of the schools may function more or less democratically, depending upon the pleasure of the superintendent and the approval of the board of education. The writer recalls with interest a remark which he heard a fellow superintendent make about twenty-five years ago. When asked whether he would be getting a vacation in August, he replied, "No, I shall spend the whole month preparing the courses of study for next year." Now, it happens that the courses of study which he prepared were the monthly page assignments to be covered in the various textbooks used in all grades. These inadequate courses of study were certainly not prepared by any democratic process.

Again the writer goes back in his memory to the year 1925 when he became director of curriculum in the Denver Public Schools. Here he found in operation a program for continuous construction and revision of courses of study. The work was done by committees of teachers with teachers as chairmen. The importance of the work was recognized by the board of education and about \$30,000 a year was used in paying substitutes while teachers gave full time to work on the courses of study, for defraying the expense of secretarial work, and for printing the bulletins. The board and the superintendent delegated this work to the teaching

⁵ "Teachers and School Boards," *School Executive*, LXIII (July, 1944), 14.

staff, under general policies approved by the board. Here was a fully democratic process in action.

Between the two extreme types of policy-making exemplified by budgetary procedures and course-of-study construction, lie many kinds of policy-making which permit more or less participation by the staff. The superintendent will usually be asked for recommendations. He may well secure the participation of the staff in preparing his recommendations. Neither the superintendent nor the staff should be surprised or disappointed if the board, for reasons frankly stated, rejects any specific recommendation and proceeds along other lines. If the board were never to reject a recommendation, it would appear to be a rubber-stamping body. Such an outcome would mean the loss of the very substance of democratic control of school policies. In the last analysis, the board cannot escape its responsibility of making policy decisions. It is thus that the schools remain under popular control. It must never be forgotten that the professional staff has no vested interest in the schools. The citizens of the local school district, subject to the laws of the state, must remain in control, and they can only exercise the control through the board of education.

To sum up the argument thus far, we have pointed out that the board of education must determine the policies which control a local school system, but the board can and usually does rely more or less completely on its chief executive officer in regard to matters that require professional competence. Moreover, the board usually seeks the recommendations of the superintendent on all other matters. He, in turn, may well seek the assistance of the entire staff in preparing his recommendations.

The case for democratic school administration has been well stated in one of the bulletins of the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administration. It seems worth while to quote from their report.

In a fundamental sense success in administration is impossible without the employment of democratic procedures. The suggestions below should be useful for guidance in developing democratic administration.

Policies are best understood by those who make them. . . .

Group judgment is safer in the long run than individual judgment. . . .

Enthusiasm is seldom kindled for the purposes of another. . . .

There are more things any administrator does not know than there are things he does know. . . .

Few persons are able to move a group. The group usually moves itself. . . .

It is essential that the entire staff participate in local planning both as to policies and procedures. . . .

Definite machinery must be established to provide for such participation.⁶

⁶ *Report of the Committee on Building a Better South through Education*, pp. 76-77. Improving Education in the South, Bulletin No. 3, 1943. Tallahassee, Florida: Southern States Work-Conference on School Administration, 1943.

The possibility of using the resources of the entire community in order to promote better schools depends upon the willingness of the superintendent and the board of education to seek the help and advice of all interested persons in the community, including in particular the parents, the students in the upper grades and high school, and the entire professional staff.

The first stage in such a program obviously is adequate evaluation of the present program. "The administrative staff, teachers, pupils, and even the public should participate democratically in the evaluation program."⁷

The second stage involves a careful determination of the needs for education in the local district. At this stage all new demands should be taken into consideration, and all accepted functions should be critically appraised in order that unnecessary functions may be dropped and others may be redefined in terms of current needs.

The third stage involves setting up a list of changes which should be made as a long-range undertaking. Then immediate practical steps toward a few yearly goals can easily be planned.

The local organization for planning suggested by the Southern States Work-Conference includes the following: (1) A co-ordinating council composed of elected representatives from each teaching group, (2) an advisory council of laymen, (3) sub-committees to perform and report upon specific tasks set up by the co-ordinating council, (4) discussion groups to advise and evaluate.⁸

In discussing some of the conditions which will make for success in local planning, the bulletin submits seven criteria for selecting the immediate goals. They are as follows:

1. They should be capable of realization after a reasonable amount of work.
2. They should be concrete in the sense that progress toward them can be measured.
3. They should affect the total school program.
4. They should be compatible with the broad objectives of education.
5. They should offer opportunity for work by a large number of people.
6. They should be goals the achievement of which will make a real difference and one which can be discerned.
7. They should be few in number.⁹

⁷ *Report of the Committee on Local Responsibility for the Organization and Administration of Education*, p. 77. Improving Education in the Southern States, Bulletin No. 1, 1943. Tallahassee, Florida: Southern States Work-Conference on School Administration, 1943.

⁸ *Report of the Committee on Building a Better South through Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 97.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 99.

3. Criteria of Staff Organization

In summary, we have presented several criteria of staff organization in the second major section of this chapter. Briefly stated they are as follows:

a) Administrative and supervisory staffs are organized so that the principal is the responsible head of his school. Central office supervisors and directors have no administrative authority. The superintendent and his administrative assistants work through the principal.

b) Policies which are delegated to the professional staff are determined by a democratic process. Recommendations concerning policy changes which are to be submitted to the board of education by the superintendent are also determined by a democratic process. The democratic process involves effective participation by all persons affected by any policy. Administration is effective and prompt in making decisions in accordance with established policies.

c) Established policies are faithfully carried out in the individual schools. A large degree of autonomy is accorded the individual school in all matters where uniformity is unimportant.

d) Planning for local educational needs brings citizens, parents, teachers, administrators, and students together for discussion and study. Proposals developed by co-operative planning groups are placed before the board of education for study, revision, and implementation. Community council, parent-teacher council, staff council, and student councils provide the necessary machinery for community planning for better education.

CHAPTER IV

STRUCTURAL ORGANIZATION OF STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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I. PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE UNIT OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The welfare of the nation is closely linked with the education of its citizens. The significance of this relationship was recently emphasized in the operation of the Selective Service System, when it was noted that the lack of adequate education on the part of many selectees interfered with the normal development of needed armed forces. Such a condition compels the nation to be concerned with the education of its children. Obviously the Federal Government cannot act as the administrative unit for providing education, even if such a plan were desirable. Since education is a function of the states, each state is the focal point in the American public school system. It is, therefore, the obligation of each state to make the maximum effort to provide adequate educational facilities for its citizens. On the other hand, the Federal Government cannot overlook its obligation to assist in the stimulation of educational progress in the removal of the causes of educational inequalities. Unfortunately, the structure of education in many states is so seriously defective that many problems are encountered when the effort is made to formulate plans for federal participation in the extension and improvement of educational opportunities.

Since the earliest days of the nation the policy of decentralization and local autonomy in educational affairs has prevailed. This theory, in part at least, grew out of the establishment of many of the early public schools by local communities without much or any assistance from the state.

This system, which originally developed in New England, served as a pattern for local school units as the populated areas expanded. Each new community tended to become a separate unit for school purposes. This type of administrative organization seemed well adapted to the limited needs of the pioneer days but is generally regarded as inadequate for present conditions.

Under this small-unit plan of school organization the people in the local communities have always exercised a relatively independent and direct control over the activities of the school, and the tradition of local autonomy in school affairs has been a strong influence in the development of state school systems. Despite the generally recognized need for larger units of administration at the present time, many local communities are still reluctant to relinquish their small school units. From the point of view of the welfare of all children in all parts of the state, this strict adherence to local autonomy has been a definite obstacle to the attempt to provide a reasonably adequate program for every child.

Fuller¹ asserts that the force of local autonomy has usually been strengthened by the merging of small local units. This means that the values of local participation in school affairs are enhanced where administrative units are enlarged and the total educational effort of the local organization is increased. Exclusive jurisdiction over a large group of impoverished and ineffective school units is less significant for effective local initiative than somewhat less autonomous control over larger units which are educationally more effective. Thus, the demand for absolute local control tends to work against the best interests of the children to be educated.

The public school system of America represents a significant contribution of democracy to civilization. However, an analysis of the situation that has developed under the local-autonomy concept readily reveals the fact that its results are far from complete and desirable. There is no question but that largely on account of inadequate educational organization in this country many boys and girls do not have access to the kind of program that should be the educational birthright of every American youth.

These problems have existed for some years and have had some consideration in nearly all states. However, many recent developments have served to focus attention on the seriousness of some of the problems inherent in the existing structure of organized education in the different states. Within the past decade the Federal Government has attempted

¹ Edgar E. Fuller, "Local Organization for More Effective Education in Massachusetts," *Harvard Educational Review*, XIII (January, 1943), 25-29.

to provide many important educational services which most states have neglected. The fact that the state educational structure is so complicated and, in many cases, so inadequate, has given some federal agencies an excuse for by-passing the state agencies and attempting to deal directly with local school units. Yet this move has not solved the problem because of the inadequacy of so many local units. Developments connected with the war have made it increasingly clear that the national interest in the education of youth cannot be disregarded. But experience with the emergency training programs of the war period makes it equally clear that a satisfactory educational program can be provided for the citizens of the nation only when the states and local communities succeed in providing a more adequate educational organization and the Federal Government develops plans for working co-operatively with the states in providing the necessary educational facilities.

Some states have recognized the need for modifying the structure of their educational systems to meet modern conditions and have made considerable progress in organizing local school units that can effectively provide for the needs of their constituents. Other states are even now attacking the problem or are preparing to do so in the immediate post-war period. The task is one of the most vital and most challenging problems of education today. No state with an inadequate administrative organization for its schools can expect to realize the full advantages of the educational system it maintains.

II. STATE AGENCIES OF CONTROL FOR EDUCATION

While education is recognized as a function of the state in this country, no state attempts to exercise this function to the extent of operating or controlling all aspects of education within its boundaries. There are, on the one hand, certain educational functions which from the beginning have been recognized as federal responsibilities. These include the training of the armed forces, the training of personnel for certain types of federal services, and the education of wards of the Federal Government. On the other hand, state legislation pertaining to education prescribes only the general pattern or the limitations within which the educational programs of its schools may be developed by competent agencies established for this purpose. That is, the state meets its responsibility for education by planning and maintaining an organization for education adapted to the needs of all of its citizens and by providing leadership, guidance, and financial support to enable this organization to function in accordance with the general plan.

In establishing this organization most states have provided for a system of institutions of higher learning to function in the main as state-

wide or regional institutions directly responsible to the state, for a system of public elementary and high schools which are popularly thought of as local institutions because much of the responsibility for their administration and control has been delegated to local administrative units, and for various other types of institutions under the control of the state which have some educational responsibilities and which may or may not be classified as educational institutions.

No state has undertaken to administer and supervise public education directly through constitutional provisions or legislative action. Each state has delegated at least some of these responsibilities to state or institutional boards. The number of such boards varies in the different states from one to eleven.²

There are four states that have one board responsible for all education. These states are Florida, Idaho, Montana, and New York. Another state, North Dakota, has one board for vocational and higher education but no board for elementary and secondary schools. The state superintendent of education has general supervision of the public schools of the state.

A larger number of states have only two boards of education. These states are California, Connecticut, Georgia, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland, Nevada, New Hampshire, Tennessee, Vermont, and Wyoming. In this group, in general, one board is responsible for elementary and secondary schools and the other board is responsible for the institutions of higher learning. Iowa, Nebraska, Rhode Island, and South Dakota have no state board for elementary and high schools but each has a board for vocational education and a separate board for higher education.

The remaining twenty-eight states have three or more boards. In general, these states have one board responsible for elementary and secondary schools and two or more boards responsible for institutions of higher learning and any special schools maintained by the state. For example, Arkansas has a state board of education for elementary, secondary, and vocational education, a separate board for each of the nine institutions of higher learning, and a board of control for the schools for the deaf and the blind.

Each state has a chief state school officer who is the executive officer of the state board of education for elementary and high schools, where such board exists. Nine states do not have a state board for elementary and secondary schools. In each of these states the chief state school officer

² W. S. Deffenbaugh and Ward W. Keesecker, *State Boards of Education and Chief State School Officers: Their Status and Legal Powers*, pp. 49-84. United States Office of Education Monograph No. 1, Bulletin No. 6, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

assumes whatever administrative and supervisory responsibilities the constitution and legislature authorize. These states are Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. In addition, the state of Massachusetts has a state advisory board of education but the principal state educational functions are under the management of the chief state school officer and the board serves only in an advisory capacity. Thirteen states have separate boards for vocational education. In at least four states, namely, Alabama, California, Kentucky, and Oklahoma, an attempt has been made to effect correlation of the work of the institutions of higher education through the establishment of an advisory council or board. The function of such advisory council is that of influence rather than of control. The Alabama State Educational Council has not functioned since 1928.

In general, the responsibility for over-all administration and supervision of elementary and secondary schools is vested in one state board of education, but the administration of higher education is usually vested in several boards. In recent years there has been a movement toward centralized control over institutions of higher learning. A few years ago Georgia abolished its system of separate boards over the higher institutions and placed all of these institutions under one board. North Carolina recently established one board of trustees for the State University, the State College for Women, and the State College of Agriculture and Engineering, but left all other higher educational institutions under separate boards. The placing of institutions of higher education under one board has been for the major purposes of correlating the work of the institutions and eliminating unnecessary duplications of services.

1. Advantages and Limitations of the State as an Administrative Unit

The existence of numerous educational agencies within a state complicates and makes difficult the exercise of the responsibility of the state for education. Where several state institutions are operating under the control of separate boards there is a tendency for these institutions to be drawn into competition for legislative appropriations, services to be rendered, and students to be served. Such action leaves the public confused and often results in the failure to provide adequate facilities for the essential functions of any of the institutions. In some instances the competition among institutions under separate administrative boards becomes so intense that it divides the people of the state into groups which are antagonistic toward institutions with which they are not affiliated. In exaggerated cases, this conflict is not confined to the recruiting of stu-

dents but expands into such fields as the selection of teaching and administrative personnel, election to political offices—educational and non-educational—and the appointment of personnel to noneducational positions. It has also been exceedingly difficult in many instances to unify the efforts and requests for appropriations by representatives of local administrative units responsible for elementary and secondary education and representatives of institutions of higher education where separate boards are involved. It seems apparent that the conflicts would not be as great if all divisions of the educational system were administered by one state board of education. Irrespective of institutional conflicts, there is great need for correlation of each level of education with every other level; that is, elementary with secondary, secondary with higher education, and vocational with nonvocational.

A national conference held in March, 1944, on prospective educational programs calling for federal and state co-operation, which was attended by representatives of more than thirty-one educational associations and interested organizations, recommended the creation of a central state board or commission, where such single state central authority does not exist. It was proposed that this central authority be responsible for: (a) determining the state policies under which federal surplus wartime equipment will be made available to the schools and colleges of the state and administering those policies in so far as they call for the services of a board having jurisdiction over elementary, secondary, vocational, and higher education; (b) supervising general surveys of the need for educational plant facilities and the use of all federal funds which may be available for expenditure in the state for educational structures as a part of any public works program; and (c) developing the state's plan for participation in the federally financed training and education program for ex-service personnel.³ This conference pointed out that such a state commission may leave the actual administration of the federally financed programs to the existing separate boards having jurisdiction over specific fields. The recommendations of this conference direct attention to some of the major problems involved in federal co-operation in educational projects on a nation-wide basis with several central educational authorities within each state.

In 1942 the Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems recommended that "the central educational authority of a state consist of (a) one policy-determining board, (b) one executive officer for that board, and (c) a staff of professional assistants for such chief executive officer." It further suggested that "the state board of education

³ Adapted from *Education for Victory*, II (March 20, 1944), 1-4.

2. Significance of Recent Trends

In recent years there has been a noticeable tendency toward the centralization of state support, control, and administration of education. The growing realization of the need for equalization of educational opportunity in a number of states has brought about an increase in the proportion of funds provided by the state. As financial support has increased, many of these states have found it desirable to prescribe additional minimum standards to safeguard the interests of the state and of the children. This tendency should be interpreted as meaning that the proper responsibilities of state governments and of local school systems, respectively, are being properly defined as a basis for a better-integrated organization in the future.

In judging recent trends, consideration should be given to the primary function of the state and the secondary function of local school administrative units in education. It is an accepted principle that local school units should not usurp the authority and powers of the state; an equally acceptable principle is that the state should not stifle local initiative. Local units are created by and derive their powers from the state. The state may add to or subtract from these units and their powers. It has been the people as a whole, through their representatives in state legislatures, who have determined educational legislation. The state cannot afford to leave the entire matter of public education to the whims and caprices of individual communities. There has been a tendency for some local school units to object to the establishment of desirable state minimum standards. On the other hand, the danger that the state may stifle local initiative in progressive communities must be recognized.

The trend toward one central state educational authority has been slow. A few states have taken a transitional step in the establishment of two boards of education, one charged with the responsibility for certain phases of higher education and another charged with responsibilities for all other types of public education. This transitional step has not completely solved the problem. Another transitional step taken to unify higher education has been the creation of a state advisory council but this step has not proven entirely successful in dealing with conflicting problems.

III. PROPOSALS RELATING TO THE STATE ORGANIZATION FOR EDUCATION

In proposing criteria for determining the adequacy of the state organization for education, consideration should be given to the function of education in a democracy and the effective realization of this function.

It is realized that human factors enter into the administration of any plan or plans and that mechanically cumbersome plans may be operated with some degree of success by superior personnel. However, the personnel in school administration should not be shackled by a cumbersome plan of educational organization. It is from these viewpoints that suggestions are presented for consideration in the future revision and development of the state educational organization.⁵ Certain of these proposals are adapted from the bulletin *State Responsibility for the Organization and Administration of Education*.

a. *One Central Educational Agency.* There should be one central education agency responsible for guiding the organization, administration, and supervision of all tax-supported education within the state. This agency should consist of a policy-forming board functioning through a chief state school officer and his professional staff, these constituting the state department of education. Until one agency is created, consideration should be given to the formulation of a co-ordinating committee to act for the separate educational agencies in guiding educational planning on a state-wide basis and particularly in connection with matters involving federal-state relations.

b. *Delegation of Authority to Local School Units.* The state should delegate responsibility for the direct administration and supervision of education on the elementary and secondary levels to local school administrative units but should provide easy methods for reorganizing small local school units into larger units where needed and should establish necessary minimum standards.

c. *State Support.* The state should establish an adequate minimum foundation program of education for every child, this program to be maintained either through state funds or, preferably, through state and local funds combined, and should establish necessary standards for local participation in such a program.

d. *Delegation of Authority for Higher Education.* On the basis of some defensible plan, the state should determine the number and location of institutions of higher learning and other state educational institutions and should also determine the services to be rendered by each such institution. In accordance with this plan the executive responsibility for each institution should be delegated to the head and staff of that institution.

IV. REGIONAL OR LARGE-AREA ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

It is now becoming increasingly evident that the traditional conception of small local administrative units for public elementary and high

⁵ Southern States Work-Conference Bulletin No. 1, 1942, *op. cit.*

schools, and of state boards of various types for higher education and other state schools must be reanalyzed in the light of modern developments and needs. The local school units found in many sections of the nation are still entirely too small to meet some of the newer needs and yet there is serious doubt as to whether state boards should attempt to administer schools which are essentially local in nature.

This problem arises to some extent even in connection with local school administrative units in many sections of the country, particularly where small units are found. For example, in states such as Michigan and Iowa there are many districts which are too small to include a high school. Tuition arrangements are usually effected so that pupils can attend a high school in another district. However, the patrons living in the districts in which the elementary schools are located usually have no voice in selecting the board for the district in which the high school is located and, consequently, have no control over the tuition charges, building facilities, curriculum, selection of teachers, and other important matters, except as these matters are governed by state law or the regulations of the state department of education.

In Wisconsin, Illinois, and a few other states, attempts have been made to solve this problem by creating high-school districts which may or may not encompass all of the surrounding elementary districts. Citizens in most of the area served by the high-school district are given opportunity to participate in the selection of the board, and thus in determining policies. However, the very nature of the organization tends to increase the difficulty of co-ordinating and integrating the work in the elementary and secondary schools. Most other states have not considered the organization of separate overlying high-school districts to be a satisfactory solution to the problem. The organization of adequate local school administrative units providing school work through at least the twelfth grade seems to offer the only satisfactory solution.

Further complications are brought about by two other comparatively recent trends: the junior-college and the area vocational- or technical-school movements. As a result of these trends, questions such as the following become important: What should be the relationship of junior colleges to the area vocational schools? Can local school administrative units of sufficient size be organized to include all the area served by a junior college or an area vocational school? In cases where it is impractical to reorganize the local units to include the entire area served by these institutions, should such institutions be administered by the board for the administrative unit in which they are located, by a specially created regional board, or by some type of state board? Should these institutions be supported entirely by the state, by the state with the aid of

federal funds, by local funds entirely, or by a combination of state and local funds with such aid from federal funds as may be made available?

In the larger cities the problem seems to be somewhat simpler than in the smaller cities and rural areas. Most cities of 100,000 or more population have sufficient area, wealth, and school population to justify the organization of a junior college and a vocational school or a combination junior college and vocational school as part of the public school system under the city board of education. Even here, however, the problem of providing facilities for pupils from nearby suburban areas requires special consideration. Where state funds are made available for such facilities, provision may be made for state funds to follow the students so as to eliminate extra tuition for those who do not reside in the local unit.

There are many smaller cities which might serve advantageously as junior-college or area vocational-school centers. In some instances, however, it may not be feasible to develop an administrative unit large enough to comprise a major portion of the entire area that would be served. In such situations, a case might be made for the administration of the junior college or vocational school as a regional school by the state board of education, although there would be many advantages in having them administered by the local board.

The recently published *Regents' Plan for Postwar Education in the State of New York* recommends the establishment of nine state-supported two-year institutes of applied arts and sciences in selected centers in the state other than New York City, where additional institutes will be established under the Board of Education or the Board of Higher Education. These institutes are to offer work above the twelfth-grade level. All the new institutes proposed for up-state New York would come directly under the State Board of Regents.

Many states are just now in the process of formulating plans for area schools and the pattern of organization has not yet been established. Many different patterns are being considered. If serious mistakes are to be avoided, the entire situation should be explored very carefully to assure that proposals are consistent with a basically sound plan of organization.

The following observations with reference to the organization of administrative units and the plan of financial support for junior colleges and area vocational schools are suggested for consideration:

- 1) The location and establishment of junior colleges and area vocational schools should not be left to local interest and pressure but should be determined on the basis of careful state-wide, and in some cases interstate, studies of needs and possibilities.
- 2) Area vocational schools should not be developed in isolation from or without

regard to the location of senior high schools and junior colleges, but should be planned as integral units in a comprehensive program of education for the area to be served. They should not be organized on any basis that would cause them to compete with high schools or junior colleges, but should be co-ordinated with these institutions so as to assure a complete and properly balanced program of education.

- 3) Some of the area vocational schools or programs meeting limited and highly specialized needs should be planned as institutions to serve the entire state and as a consequence probably should come under the state board of education and be supported by state funds.
- 4) In the smaller centers, junior colleges and area vocational schools may be organized as integral parts of one comprehensive educational institution covering two years of work beyond the high school or some of the vocational work may be organizationally a part of the high-school program. In general, the administration of these programs should be directly under the local school board, although in special cases it might be appropriate for the state board of education to assume direct responsibility for these units.
- 5) Junior colleges and area vocational schools in the larger cities, except for those established to meet state-wide rather than regional needs, should be administered by the local board of education, but the state should provide funds to care for reasonable tuition and transportation for students from nearby areas.

V. INTERSTATE CO-OPERATION IN DEVELOPING EDUCATIONAL CENTERS

Educational institutions that serve several states rather than primarily one state have long existed in America, but until recently their development has been through private efforts rather than through the co-operative efforts of state governments. Certain early established universities have offered and are now offering training in specific fields that was not and is not now available within each state. These universities have been national and regional rather than state and local in student representation, largely through the strength of their educational offering and because of the lack of demand for similar training in a greater number of centers. This regionalization of education has extended down to the level of secondary education, for certain specific offerings, such as military training.

The need for regional educational centers grows more acute with the increasing demand on the part of prospective students for varying levels and fields of training. As secondary education becomes available to a greater proportion of the total population, the demands for specific training on the college level increase. Education on the secondary level has greatly expanded in recent years both as to the number enrolled in high school and as to the number of courses offered. Enrolment in high

schools increased from 2,200,389 in 1920 to 6,601,444 in 1940 and in the same period the number of high-school graduates increased from 275,238 to 1,148,074.⁶

School transportation is rapidly bringing secondary education within reach of the rural population, and further increases in high-school enrolment in rural America may be expected following the war. Consequently, greater numbers are demanding and will probably continue to demand higher education and technical training in fields that heretofore have attracted only limited numbers. The demands in certain fields will be in numbers too small in many sections of the country for the establishment of economical and efficient training centers within each state.

Significant co-operation between states is already in effect in relation to certain types of training. The 1943 Legislature of West Virginia authorized West Virginia University to award degrees in medicine in conjunction with certain other universities and medical colleges and to direct expenditures outside the state of any funds available to the College of Medicine.⁷ In accordance with this authority, the University of West Virginia has entered into a contract with the Medical College of Virginia for the medical education of graduates of the West Virginia two-year medical school. This appears to be a ripe field for co-operation between states, due to the small number of students in the upper levels of medical courses and the high cost of such education. Some states provide scholarships for students to attend educational institutions in other states. Illustrations are afforded by the provisions for assistance to members of minority groups subject to restrictions relating to enrolment in courses for advanced or specialized training. For example, Arkansas has provided a plan, through the co-operation of the governor's office, the University of Arkansas, and the Agricultural, Mechanical, and Normal College, whereby Negro students may secure scholarship aid for the pursuance of graduate, professional, and technical studies in schools outside the state.⁸

Other possible fields of co-operative education among states include training for the doctorate in education, training of social workers, veterinary medicine, public administration, law enforcement, safety education, and specific trades and occupations which offer employment for only limited numbers.

⁶ United States Office of Education, *Advance Statistics of State School Systems*, 1939-40, p. 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

⁷ State Department of Education, *The School Laws of West Virginia, 1943*, pp. 96-97. Charleston, West Virginia: State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1943.

⁸ *Biennial Report of State Commissioner of Education, 1940-42*, p. 11. Little Rock, Arkansas: Arkansas State Department of Education, 1942.

VI. LOCAL UNITS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

1. The Prevailing District System

The local school unit is a governmental subdivision, generally called a school district, to which has been delegated the responsibility of organizing and maintaining an appropriate program of public education for its citizens. It usually includes all the area served by a single school system under local administration. In general, the school district is a corporate agency in most of its functions and responsibilities. It is to be distinguished from the attendance unit, which is merely one of the subdivisions of a large administrative unit and comprises the geographical area and population served by a particular school. In districts where all of the pupils attend the same school, the administrative unit as a whole is the attendance unit.

Local school units vary with respect to the form of their organization according to the conditions or purposes in view when they were established. The different types of units existing in different areas fall into two general classes which, for purposes of definition, may be designated *basic* and *intermediate* units. A basic unit is one that is operated under a single system of local administration. It may be independent of other units in all or most of its functions or may be subordinate to an intermediate unit in some respects. In point of territory served, the basic unit may be a one-room rural school district, a city, or even an entire county. An intermediate unit includes the areas served by a number of basic units to which certain functions, most or all of which are supervisory in nature, have been delegated. In some instances its authority may include executive powers over certain basic units. Thus, many of the basic units within a given county may, in specified respects, be subject to the county education authority, the county being an intermediate unit in this case. The intermediate unit was created to bridge the gap between the state and the local unit and to provide better fiscal control and educational supervision of the smaller basic units.

Local school administrative units do not follow any general pattern in the several states and within some states there are from ten to fifteen different kinds of units. The differences in the kinds of units represent variations in the original patterns modified by local customs, traditions, and needs in the various parts of the nation.

Changing conceptions of the function of the public school have not always been accompanied by appropriate changes in the organization designed to provide for local administration of public education. The development of the American public school system has been characterized by adherence to the policy of local autonomy. Because of the close-

ness of the school to the people there has been very little tendency to change the structural basis of the school system. Changing needs have been met in many cases by modifications and adaptations of the structure rather than by a general revision of the structure to make it fit modern needs. For example, Arkansas simplified its school district organization in 1931 by making all of its school districts alike with respect to powers and functions. This change facilitated administrative procedures within the state, but the continuance of the small-district plan, under which there were 1,970 districts with less than five teachers in 1942-43, made it practically impossible to provide a desirable school program for these areas. Of the remaining 567 districts, only eighteen employed as many as fifty teachers.

The inadequacy of the small unit, the centralization of population and wealth in urban centers, the development of good roads and motor transportation, and the organization of the modern high school have tended to check the growth in the number of units. This, in turn, has been followed by a trend toward larger units in some areas. Variations in this trend are illustrated by the number of units in the states of Arkansas and Nebraska for certain intervals. The number of districts in Arkansas increased from 2,839 in 1882 to 5,143 in 1912, and was then reduced to 2,537 by 1943. In Nebraska the local units increased from 797 to 6,708 between 1870 and 1900, and continued upward to 7,244 in 1930. Thereafter, the consolidation of districts resulted in a reduction to 7,009 units in 1942. The total number of basic administrative units in the forty-eight states dropped from 127,244 in 1932 to 112,723 in 1942. The total number of school districts as reported for all of the forty-eight states in 1942⁹ is shown in Table I.

The figures given in Table I indicate the extreme variability in the distribution of control of local school units. The states at the top of the list are the district-unit states where, in general, the county is divided into a number of small districts, each having its own school board. The states for which relatively small numbers of organizational units are shown are, for the most part, the county-unit states. Although by 1942 many of the district-unit states had materially reduced the number of units maintained in some earlier period, the consolidation of districts has progressed so slowly that, with few exceptions, the effective centralization of administrative control over local school units is largely limited to the states in which the county is the principal unit of organization.

The numerous surveys of state school systems and the various studies of the effects of different types of local units have furnished ample evi-

⁹ Data supplied by United States Office of Education.

dence that the small unit basis of organization is both expensive and inefficient. In many areas the very small districts do not have sufficient financial resources to provide proper facilities and a satisfactory educational program. In addition, it is frequently impossible in these situations to establish needed supervisory services because of the small number of teachers and pupils for whom the local school authority is responsible.

TABLE I.—RANKING OF THE STATES IN ORDER OF THE NUMBER OF BASIC UNITS IN THE ORGANIZATION OF THE STATE SCHOOL SYSTEM, 1941-42

STATE	NUMBER OF BASIC UNITS	STATE	NUMBER OF BASIC UNITS
Illinois.....	12,027	New Jersey.....	559
Missouri	8,661	Maine.....	500
Kansas.....	8,624	Arizona.....	397
Minnesota.....	7,681	Wyoming.....	376
Nebraska.....	7,009	Massachusetts.....	351
Wisconsin.....	6,881	Nevada.....	289
New York.....	6,106	Vermont.....	269
Michigan.....	5,521	Kentucky.....	261
Texas.....	5,107	New Hampshire.....	240
Mississippi.....	5,065	Georgia.....	219
Iowa.....	4,861	Connecticut.....	170
Oklahoma.....	4,518	North Carolina.....	170
South Dakota.....	3,001	Tennessee.....	160
California.....	2,794	Virginia.....	124
Arkansas.....	2,644	Alabama.....	110
Pennsylvania.....	2,517	New Mexico.....	103
North Dakota.....	2,274	Florida.....	67
Montana.....	2,066	Louisiana.....	67
Oregon.....	1,926	West Virginia.....	55
Colorado.....	1,851	Utah.....	40
South Carolina.....	1,742	Rhode Island.....	39
Ohio.....	1,666	Maryland.....	24
Idaho.....	1,278	Delaware.....	16
Indiana.....	1,149		
Washington.....	1,148	Total.....	112,723

The limitations under which the educational experiences of children are directed in areas where small school districts prevail are indicated by the data presented in Table II.

According to the figures given in the last column of Table II, at least four teaching positions were maintained by each local unit of organization in the seven county-unit states included in the report made for the year 1941-42. In contrast, 75 per cent of the districts in the fourteen district-unit states employed fewer than four teachers; and in 60 per cent of these local units there was only one teacher. On the reasonable assumption that in most situations the establishment of a separate education

authority is not essential to satisfactory administrative direction of an educational program requiring the services of fewer than forty teachers, a plan of reorganization involving more than 90 per cent of the local units in these district-unit states would be desirable. Moreover, the figures presented in this table do not include some 4,600 established districts in these fourteen states which did not maintain teaching positions in 1941-42.

TABLE II.—COMPARATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF UNITS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION ON BASIS OF THE NUMBER OF TEACHING POSITIONS MAINTAINED IN 1941-42 IN REPRESENTATIVE GROUPS OF DISTRICT-UNIT AND COUNTY-UNIT STATES*

NUMBER OF TEACHING POSITIONS	AGGREGATE NUMBER OF UNITS	
	Fourteen District-Unit States	Seven County-Unit States
1.....	29,567	
2.....	5,455	
3.....	2,497	
4.....	1,953	1
5- 9.....	4,432	27
10- 19.....	3,595	54
20- 29.....	969	49
30- 39.....	393	43
40- 49.....	244	39
50- 99.....	454	175
100-149.....	139	109
150-199.....	55	85
200 or more.....	120	145
Total units.....	49,873	727

*Data supplied by United States Office of Education from reports available in June, 1944.

a. *Regional Patterns of Unit Organization.* Many factors have affected the pattern of school district organization in America. Moehlman sums up the situation very succinctly when he states, "The current system of local school administration is the total effect of frontier experimentation, imitation, tradition, and continued practice."¹⁰ A study of local school units by states reveals a similarity of organization in some regions. Along the lower Atlantic seaboard and in the southern states the county is frequently found as the basic unit. In New England the town is the prevailing unit. In the north central states the influence of New England is seen

¹⁰ Arthur B. Moehlman, *School Administration*, p. 169. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.

in the importance of the township as the administrative unit. In the newer sections of the country, the so-called district-county system is prominent.

b. Types of Basic Organization Units. Numerous types of basic units are found in the several states. Some of the most important types are as follows:

- 1) The common school district. This is the prevailing type of district in rural areas in many states and is usually very small. Consolidation of such districts generally results in one of two types of districts:
 - a) The consolidated or union district. This type of district has resulted from the combination of several small districts chiefly for the purpose of including enough pupils to justify the development of a high school.
 - b) The community district. The rural sociologists have stressed the importance of the natural community as the logical unit of school organization, such units being able to utilize the common interests of the people most effectively. On the other hand these units are often too small to provide all desirable school services.
- 2) The county unit and its variations. The county is found both as a basic and as an intermediate unit of school organization. In seeking larger areas for local units, several states have adopted the county as the basic unit rather than utilizing the slower process of creating units around community centers. The tendency to exempt larger communities by letting them remain as independent units within the county unit has been common, although the number of such units is gradually declining. In only two states, Florida and West Virginia, are all counties organized as single units. In all county-unit states the need for establishing appropriate attendance districts is recognized and the boundary lines for each separately organized school are adjusted to the convenience of the pupils concerned. Such adjustments are frequently made between adjoining counties.

The states placing chief dependence on the county, or the county except for independent districts, as a basic unit and the prevailing situation within these states are indicated in Table III.
- 3) Independent city school districts. In general the larger cities constitute independent school units which are not under the supervision of intermediate units, except possibly on a nominal basis. For 1937-38 the United States Office of Education listed a total of 1,893 independent urban units in the twenty-eight states reporting, the number of such units varying from 1 in Maryland to 179 in Indiana.
- 4) Special independent districts. Because of the inadequacy of the common school district in some states special districts whose functions are limited to the provision of certain phases of the educational program have developed. These include:
 - a) Elementary-school districts. Such districts are organized in some states to provide only elementary-school facilities.
 - b) Secondary-school districts. These districts have been superimposed upon

existing elementary districts in a few states. They are designed to extend high-school privileges to all children without disturbing the existing elementary-school organization and to secure more liberal financial support for secondary education. Such systems create problems with respect to the unity of the school program and administrative policies and tend to perpetuate the small elementary-school units.

- 5) The town district. In New England the centralization of the earlier small community units has resulted in the development of the town as the unit of school organization. In some instances the town represents a compact sociological unit. It is not uncommon for towns to consolidate into larger units for school organization and administration or to form a union for provision of professional supervision.

TABLE III.—NUMBER OF BASIC SCHOOL UNITS IN THE TWELVE STATES IN WHICH THE COUNTY-UNIT PLAN OF ORGANIZATION PREDOMINATES*

STATE	NUMBER OF UNITS OF ORGANIZATION COMPRISING			TOTAL UNITS IN THE STATE
	An Entire County	An Independent District	All of the County except Independent Districts	
Alabama.....	37	43	30	110
Florida.....	67	67
Georgia.....	106	60	53	219
Kentucky.....	32	141	88	261
Louisiana.....	61	3	3	67
Maryland.....	22	1	1	24
New Mexico ..	1	72	30	103
North Carolina.....	49	70	51	170
Tennessee.....	52	65	43	160
Utah.....	24	11	5	40
Virginia.....	100	24	124
West Virginia	55	55

* At least six other states have one or more county units.

- 6) The township district. In seeking a larger administrative unit, some states adopted the civil township as a basic unit. It was quite prevalent at one time but is the prevailing type of unit today only in Indiana, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, although many such units are still found in Michigan, Iowa, and North Dakota.
- 7) The state district. Except for the city of Wilmington and fourteen special districts (generally the larger towns) the schools of Delaware, including 142 attendance areas, are operated as a unit under the state board of education.

c. Types of Intermediate Units. The function of the intermediate unit is to bridge the gap between the level of local control in the small district and the central education agency of the state. Strict local control, as is

indicated by the thousands of very small school units, makes desirable or necessary the use by the state of a medium for harmonizing some of the local objectives in developing local programs of education in a manner that will promote the welfare of all the children of the state. It is apparent that as the educational structure is modified by the creation of larger units, the need for the intermediate unit diminishes.

The township serves as a kind of intermediate unit in some states. However, the county is the most common and definite type of intermediate unit found in most states. In at least thirty-three states the county plays a definite part in the fiscal affairs of the schools through the levy of county-wide taxes. In most of these states the county may have some supervisory responsibility even though it is granted little or no executive authority. In other states the county exercises considerable financial as well as administrative responsibility. The smaller local units generally are so weak that county aid is necessary to provide the necessary school program and this aid has been accompanied in many cases by the assumption of administrative responsibility such as the provision of pupil transportation.

d. Quasi-administrative Units. In some states the shift from local autonomy has not been complete even though larger units of administration have been created. The "grass roots" principle has been so imbedded in the minds of the people that they are unwilling to surrender all control to a centralized board. Typical of this situation is the retention of local trustees to look after the interests of the local community or to advise the school board of the administrative unit. Such trustees often exercise considerable power and in many instances may handicap educational progress. In some states, such as Florida and Alabama, there exist in the county units subdistricts for taxing purposes. Many of these subdistricts were originally created around small elementary schools and are not adequate under present conditions. These districts, however, are not administrative units in any fundamental sense.

2. Problems Arising from Present Organization

Many of the problems confronting the schools in small-district states may be attributed to the plan of organization of local school units. It should not be inferred that reorganization will eliminate all such problems, but many of these problems will be solved and others will become less acute as larger units of school organization are developed.

In the days when only a small proportion of the pupils attended high school and most of the elementary schools provided courses, chiefly in the three R's, for pupils who lived within walking distance of the schools, these problems were not so acute. Many people even yet do not realize

how radically this situation has been changed as a result of the development of good highways and rapid motor transportation, and of the emergence of new concepts of education which have grown out of the changes in the American way of life. The small district had become obsolete before the war. Developments connected with the war have made it such a drag on educational progress that it should no longer be tolerated.

Some of the problems which cannot be solved in many states without a drastic reorganization of local school units may briefly be summarized as follows:

- 1) Small units cannot provide the wide range of services essential for a modern system of education.
- 2) The cost of providing even the meager services that are provided for a small number of children in many of these units is excessive, and cannot be met by the less wealthy districts. In fairness to the children and taxpayers in the larger administrative units, the state cannot afford to use a part of its limited funds for education to subsidize programs that are needlessly excessive in cost.
- 3) Adequate high-school facilities cannot be provided for children from small districts without a complicated patchwork system of tuition charges or without developing overlapping high-school districts which accentuate the problem of integration, involve separate tax levies, and require separate boards which are likely to have some overlapping functions.
- 4) The resources of the small districts will not permit the payment of salaries necessary to provide competent leadership and, as a result, untrained lay boards may have to attempt to assume some of the functions which properly belong to a trained school executive.
- 5) If reasonably adequate services can be provided even at a high cost, there is duplication of effort, lack of economy, and a pressure on the tax dollar which society can ill afford.
- 6) Even though high-school centers are developed, the program will be handicapped by the necessity of providing special services for the inadequately trained pupils who come from the adjacent elementary districts which cannot provide a satisfactory educational program.
- 7) The difficulty of financing an expensive educational program in small, inefficient districts will be much greater following the war due to the competition of other deserving social services for the tax dollar, and the relatively high taxes which must be maintained to retire the national debt.
- 8) In spite of all makeshift arrangements that may be made and of the best efforts of all persons in the community there will still be many children from the smaller districts who cannot have the educational facilities they will need to participate most constructively in postwar American life.

3. Trends in Reorganization of Basic Units

Reference has been made to the progress toward elimination of small units in certain states. It should not be inferred that there is a general

trend toward reorganization in all states. Comparison of the present number of local units in the several states with the number reported a decade ago reveals the fact that in some states the number of units has not been materially reduced. In general these states are fairly wealthy and the cumbersome and relatively expensive small districts are tolerated because the burden of supporting them is not heavy. Districts with a comparatively small tax base find the burden much greater and the meagerness of the educational offering is much more apparent. In states where the local communities look to the state for substantial financial aid there is generally a trend toward the creation of larger units.

The current shortage of teachers is tending to bring about the consolidation of small schools as well as the reorganization of small units in some states. A significant development in this connection was the recommendation of the 1942 National Conference on School Transportation in Wartime that pupil transportation be reorganized on a large-unit basis with the unit being at least the equivalent of a county. A serious attempt has been made by most states to develop the routing of school buses on this basis in the operation of buses under the regulations of the Office of Defense Transportation. This has many implications favoring the reorganization of local school units following the war.

Short sketches of the procedures involved and the results of reorganization of school units in selected states are presented herewith.

a. Arkansas. Since 1912 when a peak of 5,143 districts was reached in Arkansas, over one-half of the districts have been eliminated. Following a state-wide survey made by Dawson, Little, and others in which plans of reorganization were developed for every county, the state eliminated a total of 1,482 districts in the period from 1928 to 1931. This program was halted by a change in the law to require the approval of the majority of the qualified voters in each unit affected and by the decline in school revenue during the years of the depression. The program was characterized by the development of a state-aid plan stimulating reorganization and by aggressive leadership in reaching the people.

Following the federal study of local school units in 1936-37, the state has eliminated approximately one hundred units per year. This situation has resulted from a consistent program of public relations emphasizing the value of larger units of administration and a firm but insistent pressure upon local officials to promote reorganization. The program has been handicapped by lack of local leadership during the period when the county superintendency was abolished and by the inadequacy of the state equalizing fund. Of the seventy-five counties in the state, sixteen now

have fifteen or fewer districts. On July 1, 1944, Arkansas had 2,451 districts.

b. Michigan. In 1942 the governor of Michigan appointed a public education study commission to determine the extent of the inefficiencies in education in Michigan. The commission made a thorough study of public education in the state and in January, 1944, presented a series of recommendations which will be submitted to the legislature in 1945. It is reported that as a result of the recommendations both school people and the general public are now more conscious of their responsibility in relation to education than ever before. The recommendations call for early reorganization of the 6,274 units of nine different types into four classes of districts with practically all units meeting desirable minimum standards. It is proposed that county school district reorganization committees be created in each county to assist in the reorganization plan.

c. New York. New York was one of the first states having a large number of small districts to attempt the reorganization of local school units. Early in the century the district superintendent of schools was given the power to abolish a school district and to annex the territory to a contiguous district or districts. This procedure worked satisfactorily for a while but there arose opposition on the ground of dictatorial use of executive power.

Next there was enacted the central school act, which has played a vital role in the reorganization of school districts in the state. Through this act and the excellent state leadership, coupled with the system of state aid, there has developed a type of school adapted to the needs of modern education. The central school district has been more effective than the earlier consolidated district, many of which are being absorbed by new central districts. As of 1943 there had been 653 consolidations embracing a total of 1,550 districts, leaving only 337 consolidated districts of the 815 which had been in operation at an earlier time. Between 1930 and 1943 the number of central school districts increased from 65 to 295 and the number of original districts included therein had increased from 583 to 4,084. Between 1920 and 1943 the total number of organization units in New York State was reduced from 10,176 to 5,857.

d. Ohio. The Ohio School Foundation Law, which went into effect in 1935, provided that annually, for a period of four years, each county board of education should submit proposed plans for the reorganization of its county school system. When the law became effective there were 1,879 school districts in the state. By 1943 this number had been reduced to 1,641. During the same period, however, the number of one-room schools was reduced from 2,387 to about 800. Since 1943 the law has required county boards to submit a plan of reorganization every two years.

*e. Washington.*¹¹ Under the provisions of a law enacted in 1941, effective reorganization of local school units is now in progress in the state of Washington. This law provides for a school district planning committee in each county, the personnel of which is appointed by the county superintendent of schools and one person from each school district in the county selected by the board of directors of the district. Upon this planning committee is imposed the duty of preparing, after required public hearings have been held, a plan for the reorganization of the school districts of the county and for an adjustment of the assets and liabilities of the districts involved. The committee must consider "the educational needs of local communities, the convenience and welfare of pupils, economies in transportation and in administration costs, and a reduction in disparities in per-pupil valuation among school districts."

Plans thus prepared must be approved by a state committee, also created by the law. Each proposal for the formation of a new school district and for the adjustment of the assets and liabilities of the districts involved must be submitted to a vote of the people resident in the territory of the proposed new district, the voting in such election being "at large." In the event of a favorable vote, the county superintendent is required to establish the new district and to effect the approved terms of adjustment of assets and liabilities.

Most of the school district reorganization effected under this law has resulted in the establishment of new districts that include the entire service area of an acceptable high school. In a few instances two or three districts that operate small high schools have, along with their non-high-school district territory, been united to form a new district. Districts so formed will ultimately operate a single high school—whenever conditions permit the construction of the necessary building.

Under the reorganization program as now projected in Washington, the 1,320 school districts in existence on April 1, 1941, will be reduced to approximately 325 districts. About 220 of these districts will comprise the entire service area of an acceptable high school. The remaining 105 represent districts operating small high schools that cannot be discontinued now, because of local opposition to the plan or inability to construct new buildings during the war, and some small districts too remote to be included in the service area of any high school.

About 625 districts had already been eliminated as of June 1, 1944. Reorganization was under way in approximately 250 districts, leaving about 125 districts not involved in the reorganization plans now under

¹¹ Adapted from a statement by Elmer L. Breckner, State Committee for the Reorganization of School Districts, Olympia, Washington.

way. During the first three years of reorganization, 160 elections were held on the question of the formation of a new district. In only thirty cases was the vote unfavorable. In every case where a second election has been held the vote was favorable.

f. West Virginia. Prior to 1933 the state of West Virginia used the magisterial district, which is comparable to the township, as the unit of public school organization. By action of the state legislature that year the 398 districts of the state were abolished and the 55 counties were established as local school units, each having a board of five members to direct its affairs.

The ineffectiveness of the magisterial district had long been a center of discussion in state educational circles. Finally, it was decided to make intensive studies of some of the counties with the view of determining the best plan of reorganization in these counties. This procedure was so effective that the proposal for general reorganization of the state school system was presented to the legislature with favorable results.

g. Wisconsin. In 1939 Wisconsin inaugurated a definite program of school district reorganization, as a result of which 938 districts had been eliminated by April 15, 1944, and progress was continuing. In 1939 the state superintendent of schools was given the power to attach districts with valuations of less than \$100,000 to contiguous districts. The superintendent, in the use of this authority, studied conditions in the various counties of the state where reorganization seemed feasible. The exercise of his authority to abolish weak districts and the development of the county surveys created considerable public interest in the program. A considerable number of units having valuations over \$100,000 were abolished and attached to other districts by referendum vote of the people and by action of municipal boards. At the last report the program seemed to be gathering momentum as the beneficial results of reorganization became more apparent.

In his biennial report for 1940-42, State Superintendent John Callahan quotes from a study of the educational and financial effects of the reorganization in nine counties:

In the nine counties . . . 423 districts were involved in reorganization before September 1, 1941. These 423 districts employed 403 teachers and expended \$512,606 in operating their schools in 1938-39. In 1941-42 the same area was served by 139 district organizations which employed 281 teachers and had total operating costs of \$405,699. In the latter year there were 284 fewer districts, with 122 fewer teachers, and the operating costs were cut by \$106,907 or 20.85 per cent.¹²

¹² State of Wisconsin, *Thirtieth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1940-42*. Madison, Wisconsin: Department of Public Instruction, 1943.

4. Factors Tending To Retard the Organization of More Satisfactory Units

Despite the apparent need of larger school units, reorganization proceeds very slowly. There are numerous factors that tend to prevent or retard reorganization. In some instances aggressive leadership succeeds in overcoming these forces but all too often their collective impact results in the retention of the small unit with its ineffective program. These obstacles seem to cluster around such conditions as the following:

Laws governing changes in district boundaries. In some instances the laws of the state constitute an obstacle to district reorganization. The procedures for changing boundaries may be complicated and burdensome or the statutes may be ambiguous and difficult to follow with any assurance that the reorganization will be valid. Generally it is necessary to secure the approval of the majority of the electors in each unit affected, thus enabling the will of small minorities to prevail. Legislation in this field is characterized in many states by a lack of progressive provisions which might facilitate the process of reorganizing the inadequate units.

Provisions for financial support. The statutes in some states tend to place a premium on the maintenance of the small unit. This is usually the case when definite financial assistance for reorganization is not provided. Inability of the proposed new district to provide the needed buildings, equipment, and transportation service is frequently reported to be a serious obstacle in the way of reorganization. Definite provision should be made as a part of the state-aid program for grants amounting to a reasonable share of the initial capital outlay expenditures necessary for the establishment of the reorganized unit.

Misunderstandings, traditions, and folkways. The dissemination of misinformation is one of the most effective weapons against reorganization. Such misconceptions as the idea that the reorganization of the district means that all community elementary schools must be abandoned, coupled with traditions clinging about the neighborhood school, and the folkways of the various communities, tend to stimulate emotional outbursts that intensify the feeling against reorganization. Inadequate conceptions of a desirable educational program are likewise impediments to progress.

Political and economic factors. Political conflicts between neighboring communities or between individuals often prevent the development of logical attendance areas or the creation of desirable administrative units. Loss of prestige and power through changes in the membership of the school board has hindered many reorganization proposals. Variability in economic status or outstanding indebtedness may handicap reorganization movements when the residents of richer districts are unwilling to pool the resources of their districts with those of poorer districts in the interest of a better educational program for all of the children.

Lack of leadership. Other factors tending to hinder reorganization are: lack

of the recognition of factors operating to encourage the organization of more satisfactory units, fear of loss of control over the schools, and lack of state or county agencies charged with the responsibility of initiating plans for reorganization. Since the people so generally prefer to retain the existing school organization, it is apparent that progress toward effective reorganization of inadequate units rests primarily on enlightened leadership.

5. Factors Tending To Stimulate the Organization of More Adequate Units

Perhaps the most powerful force tending to stimulate the organization of satisfactory school units is the realization on the part of increasing numbers of influential citizens that an effective educational program is possible only through the creation of units that provide enough pupils and adequate financial support for the maintenance of such a program as is desired. In general the factors promoting school district reorganization are strong leadership, state-aid plans for stimulating the creation of larger units, simplification of legislation pertaining to reorganization, education of the people to the value of better schools, and the establishment of standard provisions to be met by all school districts. Certain influences tending to stimulate local communities to participate in reorganization programs are observable in many situations. These include: the recognized inability of many small units to support effective schools; increasing competition from other governmental agencies in providing educational facilities; improved roads which make efficient pupil transportation possible; the possibility of enriching the program when there is a greater number of pupils; the difficulties involved in the provision of high-school tuition; the manpower shortage, making it impossible to supply smaller schools with teachers; the demand for greater efficiency and economy on the part of the schools; increasing demands for vocational and other courses more nearly adapted to local needs and frequently requiring the creation of administrative units sufficiently large to justify such programs; and the realization of thousands of soldiers and war workers, who came from poor schools, of the handicaps they faced in competing with fellow Americans from areas providing better schools.

While all of these factors should contribute to the realization on the part of the American public that the structure of American education is no longer adequate in many states to meet the need, they provide no assurance that the problem will be solved in the near future. Many persons who, as a result of developments connected with the war effort, have shifted temporarily or permanently to other communities and states—and this will include millions of Americans—should gain a new insight into the handicaps and possibilities in different forms of educational organization. They should be more ready than ever before to consider valid

proposals for reorganization. However, before much progress can be expected, careful studies will have to be made in every state and community showing the specific handicaps which exist, pointing to the need for reorganization and proposing definite steps to be taken in planning the improvements. If the interested citizens can participate to the extent that the proposals become their program, much progress can be expected during the next few years.

6. Responsibilities for the Organization of More Satisfactory Units

a. State Responsibility. In general, the schools are creatures of the state legislature and as such are subject to its will. What the legislature creates, it can change, modify, or even abolish if it sees fit. Thus, it is within the power of the respective state lawmaking bodies to overhaul the administrative structure of public education and create more effective and more satisfactory units as they see fit. However, the same forces that hold the schools close to the people tend to restrict needed legislative changes.

Each state has a definite responsibility of providing adequate educational facilities for all of its citizens regardless of the variations in financial procedures for effecting changes in the status of school districts. It should provide the leadership and the information necessary to create local interest in reorganization. It should adapt its program of school finance so that all tendency to perpetuate the small unit through allocation of state funds will be eliminated and that encouragement and stimulation toward the creation of larger units will be reflected in the allocation of funds.

The state should plan its school program, including the provision of an adequate administrative structure, co-ordinately with plans for improving other aspects of the state program. In order to create an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the problems and issues involved in consolidation, the state should take measures to provide the people with adequate information regarding both plans and procedures for reorganizing school units and anticipated outcomes.

b. Local Responsibility. It is recognized that the schools should have every opportunity and encouragement to exercise the proper local initiative in developing and carrying out the program of instruction in harmony with local needs. Yet, it should be remembered that local needs invariably embrace factors that affect the welfare of the entire state. Accordingly, it is essential that those responsible for the development of local programs of education relate the programs and the plans for providing them to the program in nearby units and to the state program.

It should be remembered that the local unit enjoys a distinctive role in

that it represents both the local community and the state. It is the local organization to which is assigned the responsibility of executing the general educational plan of the state. It also has the obligation of seeing that the local ideals of education are not disregarded.

In order to strengthen the democratic process in educational procedures, school leaders should help the citizens to understand the present and future needs of the schools and to learn what steps should be taken toward meeting these needs. An intelligent understanding of the schools on the part of the public will secure better financial and moral support of the schools in all types of communities.

c. National Responsibility. It is generally agreed that federal participation is necessary if a satisfactory program of education is to be maintained throughout the nation. Yet, the Congress of the United States has not been convinced of the need of providing general funds for this purpose. That subject is still a highly debatable issue.

In view of the direct relation between national welfare and the educational programs provided in the forty-eight states, there is a definite responsibility on the part of the Federal Government to provide research, information, and leadership in the development of a more effective organization of public education in the various states. The federal agencies should advise state authorities of the need for adequate staffs in the state departments of education to the end that plans for the improvement of the schools may be developed and introduced as they are required. Consideration should be given to the need for federal grants-in-aid to state departments of education for increasing the effectiveness of their staffs and for the provision of financial assistance in the construction of public school buildings in connection with desirable reorganization plans such as were recommended by the Advisory Committee on Education.¹³ The provision of a substantial portion of the funds needed for capital outlays incident to reorganization would be a stimulating factor in bringing about reorganization in many areas, particularly where present funds are inadequate. Desirable reorganization is dependent upon the proper development of plans for the new organization. Hence, there is a need for an adequately staffed department of education in each of the states.

7. Characteristics of a Satisfactory Plan of Organization of Local Administrative Units

In the consideration of school unit reorganization, the question naturally arises, "How large should a unit be in order to be capable of providing desirable educational services?"

¹³ Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, pp. 64-69. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

At least two important researches in this area have been made; numerous studies have outlined minimum standards; various writers have expressed their views on the subject; and at least one significant conference has devoted its attention to the matter.

An analysis of factors determining the size of the unit that can provide skilled and economical administration and supervision of the schools led Briscoe¹⁴ to conclude that a satisfactory local school unit is one employing at least forty teachers. This would mean that there should be at least fifteen hundred pupils. The study showed certain variations such as the need of at least fifty teachers to assure adequate general control and eighty to ninety teachers to assure economical administration.

Dawson,¹⁵ using an analysis of existing conditions, research findings, and expert opinion, reached the conclusion that the desirable minimum size of a local school unit expected to provide a standard organization would be 280 teaching units and 9,800 pupils. The maximum modification of standard organization which would permit the minimum desirable services to be offered is said to require approximately 46 teaching units and 1,600 pupils.

Works and Lesser,¹⁶ who emphasize the sociological factors contributing to the desirable unit for school purposes, suggest that there is no one "best" size or type of unit. They point out that careful research and experience indicate that a unit should have a minimum of forty teachers and approximately twelve hundred pupils and that there would be gains in efficiency in units employing up to three hundred teachers. They feel that the school unit should be sufficiently large (a) to offer a minimum of twelve grades of schooling; (b) to provide administrative and supervisory services; (c) to provide a broad base for local taxation; and (d) to facilitate the economical operation of the schools.

The Southern States Work-Conference on School Administrative Problems in 1942¹⁷ suggested that state laws discourage the organization or continuation of local school units with less than two thousand children of school age and with an assessed valuation of less than \$3,000,000.

The Michigan Public Education Study Commission on January 20,

¹⁴ Alonzo Otis Briscoe, *The Size of the Local Unit for Administration and Supervision of Public Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 649. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.

¹⁵ Howard A. Dawson, *Satisfactory Local School Units*, p. 81. Field Study No. 7. Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934.

¹⁶ George A. Works and Simon O. Lesser, *Rural America Today*, pp. 41-62. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942.

¹⁷ *State Responsibility for the Organization and Administration of Education*, op. cit., pp. 35-37.

1944, recommended¹⁸ minimum standards of (a) at least \$3,000,000 of state equalized real and personal property valuation; and (b) a minimum enrolment of 360 pupils in Grades VII to XII.

The National Conference on Reorganization of School Units in 1935 agreed that an organized unit should offer educational facilities at least through the twelfth grade; it should be sufficiently large to warrant the provision of all essential and desirable administrative and supervisory services except those provided directly by the state; and, if the principle of state support of a minimum program is recognized and applied, there will be little occasion for organizing units in terms of their ability to be self-sustaining.¹⁹

In view of present conceptions of the functions of public education, it seems that desirable minimum standards for a satisfactory local school administrative unit may be summarized in the following single criterion: *The local school administrative unit should be large enough to provide without excessive cost an adequate educational program for all its citizens through at least the twelfth grade.*

Such a criterion has certain implications. Some of these may be enumerated as follows: (a) The program should be provided on an economical and efficient basis. This in turn implies a school population of approximately two thousand pupils and provision for fifty to sixty teachers. (b) Unless there are extenuating circumstances, the unit should have a tax base covering at least three to four millions of dollars of taxable property. Under an adequate state minimum program such a provision is not essential although it would definitely be helpful. (c) The schools should be comfortably housed, suitably equipped, adequately staffed with trained teachers, and properly supervised. (d) Transportation should be provided those pupils who live beyond a reasonable walking distance from school and reasonable transportation schedules should be maintained. (e) There should be provided professionally trained administrative and business services, along with attendance and health supervision. (f) The educational offerings should be adequate to meet the needs of the community.

Various writers have proclaimed the merits of the different kinds of units. However, to date no significant research has established the desirability of one type of unit over the other. It is probably true that, given sufficient pupils to justify economical operation and adequate financial

¹⁸ Michigan Public Education Study Commission, "Recommendations for Public Education in Michigan." Progress Report No. 5. Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Public Education Study Commission, 1944 (mimeographed).

¹⁹ *Reorganization of School Units*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, 1943. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

support, one type of unit will function about as effectively as another. Different kinds of units may, therefore, be expected to be developed in the different states and regions.

In *School Life* of January, 1940, W. W. Trent and Howard A. Dawson debated the merits of the county as a unit for school administration. Trent held that the county unit tends to equalize both educational opportunity and tax burdens without regard to the privileged few. He suggested that community units established for social and economic purposes might not be desirable for school purposes. Superintendent Trent feels that the county unit plan has been very successful in West Virginia. Dawson admitted the possibility of the general effectiveness of the county as a unit but expressed the view that these facts do not necessarily establish the county as the most satisfactory unit of school organization. Some counties are too small to attain the minimum desirable services of a school unit while others that are large enough to provide the services are composed of large community units that should not be submerged within the county-wide organization.

Emphasis on the development of units on the basis of the community has grown in the past few years and undoubtedly much of the reorganization in some states will give serious consideration to this kind of unit.

It seems reasonable to predict that increased attention will be given in the postwar years to the creation of larger units. It is most likely that the kind of unit which is developed in a given area will follow the general pattern already prevailing in that area. In the southern, western, and midwestern states where the county is important as a civil unit, the trend may be toward the county. In other sections, the trend toward the community or other type of larger unit will probably prevail. No doubt other combinations will be found desirable, such as the development of attendance areas on a community basis with the over-all administrative unit coterminous with the county or perhaps including several counties.

If and when the 112,723 basic school units in the United States are reduced to 3,000 (the approximate number of counties) or even to 10,000 units, the next tendency will be to adjust the boundary lines between the units to make them most adaptable to social, economic, and other community interests.

VII. LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

a. The Implications of Democracy. Ineffective and cumbersome units of school organization constitute a threat to democracy in that such units not only fail to serve the educational objectives of the state but actually help to confuse the people on important issues pertaining to the nature of a democratic school system. Amid such confusion, the public is in-

clined to listen to the demagogue or the would-be dictator who may point to the high costs resulting from small districts and promise pseudo reforms that not only may not solve the problem but may further handicap education. Where local government breaks down because of inefficiency, the people turn to the state for service. Where state governments fail to perform their essential functions, the people tend to turn to the Federal Government for relief. Such failures do not solve the problems in education or in any other phase of government.

Education is committed to the maintenance and improvement of American democracy. The people expect and have the right to demand efficiency in educational administration. Where it can be seen that net advantages may be secured in the consolidation or co-ordination of local administrative units without impairing the unique services of education, such consolidation or co-ordination should be effected. Since one of the major functions of education in a democracy is to seek and make known the truth, the responsible educational agency, be it state or local, should be protected from dominance by any partisan organization in power. While the people should always retain the right to determine through constitutional and legislative provisions the broad purposes and minimum standards of education, the policy of giving school boards considerable independence in matters of detailed procedures, administrative policies, and finance should be continued. The procedure for reorganization of local school units must be democratic and based on a consideration of the rights and welfare of the people.

b. Implications of Long-Range Planning. In recent years there has been added emphasis on the development of comprehensive state and local planning organizations. Several states now have state planning boards designed to assist in various phases of economic, occupational, and social planning. State and local boards of education have important responsibilities for long-term planning for education although too few of them have developed adequate continuous programs. Educational procedures must be conceived of and operated as long-term processes.

School officials now have the opportunity of co-operating with state and local planning agencies in the development of educational plans along with plans for all other governmental services. Such co-operation and services of state planning boards should be sought and utilized by state school officials in planning needed reorganization of local school units, but the responsibility for educational planning should be assumed by educational authorities.

School officials not only have a direct responsibility for developing a program of continuous planning for improvements in education at state

and local levels, but must be increasingly concerned with the possible ramifications of national planning in the future. For example, if postwar public road programs fail to consider the construction and maintenance of access roads to main highways, because of the absence of interest or data relating thereto, failure will impair the services of town and rural schools and will have definite implication for the reorganization of local units. If plans are not made through surveys for the proper location of school buildings, it is conceivable that a postwar public works program might arouse sufficient local interest to result in construction of school buildings in centers where they will not be needed or might handicap the desirable reorganization of existing local school units.

c. Implications of State Financial Support Programs. The variations in the financial ability of local communities to provide financial support for public education make it incumbent upon the state to provide financial aid for the equalization of educational opportunity for at least a minimum foundation educational program even after local school units have been reorganized. In most states there is a great need for further revision in the methods of distributing financial aid to equalize educational opportunity. State aid should be apportioned to local school units on objective bases and should be in support of comprehensive educational programs. It is not necessary that state aid be earmarked for each specific phase of education. On the contrary, it is generally desirable that state appropriations should be applicable to the total educational need of the community. Even where constitutional provisions have established funds for a specific purpose and require that these funds be distributed to the local school units on bases contrary to the principle of equalization, some states have so apportioned additional state aid as to overcome the failure of the constitutional funds to equalize educational opportunity. In such state equalization programs, local ability to finance a minimum foundation program is calculated on the basis of assessed valuation of property in the local unit. Since the ratio of assessed value to the true value of taxable property varies among school units, inequities in the distribution of state aid are frequently observed. These may be partially or completely corrected through the use of other economic factors, properly weighted, in the formula for distributing state funds.²⁰ Different states use one or more measures of financial ability, such as proceeds from the sales tax, income tax, automobile license taxes, or the value of manufactures, farm income, etc. Such methods of adjusting state-aid plans to varying com-

²⁰ Alabama operates such a plan. For further reference see Francis G. Cornell and Roe L. Johns, "Alabama's New Index of Local Ability To Pay for Education," *School Executive*, XL (June, 1941), 22-23.

munity needs are essential if any program involving the reorganization of local units is to be fully effective.

d. Implications of Educational Leadership. It has been shown that the structural organization of many of the state school systems is not well designed from the point of view of the interest of the state in the education of its citizens. The general pattern of organization in the district-unit states is considered seriously defective. This situation presents a distinct challenge to American educators. While the educators cannot by themselves reconstruct this pattern, the opportunity is available for them to assume the leadership in an effort to rid the nation of tens of thousands of inadequate school units. Such an undertaking is an obligation the educators owe the youth of rural America.

Public education authorities also have an obligation to society to promote such reorganization of school systems as will insure the attainment of the educational ideals of the nation. An important by-product of such reconstruction of public education will be better returns from the expenditure of public funds. With the national debt mounting under the impact of war demands, the competition for the tax dollar will be much greater after the war and it will therefore be necessary to effect every possible economy in financing the schools. Better organization of the state and local school systems can assist greatly in this undertaking.

Finally, it is important to note that the profession of education bears the responsibility of informing the public regarding the needs of its schools. In order that the schools may be better prepared to meet the requirements of appropriate educational opportunities for all classes of youth in the postwar period, members of the profession should encourage the early reorganization of the present small-unit structure through which such a large portion of American education is provided.

CHAPTER V

RELATIONSHIPS OF EDUCATION TO GOVERNMENT

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The relation of education to government is a highly complex issue and has many implications for proposals involving substantial modifications of state school systems. As the structure of government at all levels—federal, state, and local—has been expanded to meet the needs of modern civilization, the actual and potential relationships between schools and other governmental enterprises have become more complicated and the attendant problems have become more numerous and more difficult to solve. Moreover, there are many voluntary agencies which are concerned with educational services, and their services are in many instances closely related to the educational programs operating under public control. These agencies cannot all determine educational policies and objectives and provide educational services without inevitable conflicts and confusions.

The conditions which give rise to conflicts or otherwise impede the efficient management of educational programs cannot be improved merely by stating that they are unsatisfactory in many situations. Principles of satisfactory operating relationships must be clearly stated and must be recognized in practice. Wherever adjustments are needed, these must be planned in terms of the accepted principles. This constitutes one of the most urgent problems facing education and government today.

I. THE POSITION OF EDUCATION IN THE STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

The question of satisfactory relationships of education to government cannot be adequately answered without first exploring the basic concepts concerning the place and functions of public education in organized society in a democracy. These functions may be discussed in terms of the theory of education as such, the theory of government, or of legal theory as evidenced by court decisions.

In the first place, it is necessary to recognize that education is now

generally accepted and established by court decisions as basically a function and responsibility of state government rather than of federal or local government. The acceptance of the concept of education as a state function carries some very definite and clear-cut implications concerning relationships between other units of organized government and the established state school systems. It means that (a) the relations of the Federal Government to education should be with and through the state rather than directly with local schools, and (b) the basic relations of local government to education are regulated or prescribed by the state rather than by local government.

Many educational leaders take the position that education is a unique function of government—that, in fact, it is basic to all other functions. This position has been well stated by the Educational Policies Commission as follows:

Taken in its fullness, education stands apart from the other public services, such as public works and public safety, and is distinguished by obligations of its own. It underlies and helps to sustain all public services. . . . The peculiar nature of education and its functions in society have been recognized by the sober judgment of the American people as expressed in constitutions and statutes. . . . One fundamental principle underlies almost all of them. It is that authorities, state and local, in charge of the public schools and colleges are to stand apart from the executive and legislative branches of the government which respond annually, biennially, or quadrennially to the majority or plurality of votes cast in popular elections at the close of political campaigns.¹

This point of view regarding the position of education in the structure of government is not universally accepted. There are many leaders—some in education and many in the field of political science—who sincerely hold that education should not be considered a unique function of government any more than health and welfare services, the maintenance of highways or, in fact, than any other function. Advocates of centralization point out that all services are so closely related that they must be considered and evaluated as component parts of community, state, and national programs. Certain political scientists and leaders in public administration insist that if chaos is to be prevented, budget making, accounting, purchasing, personnel administration, and a great many other services for education as well as for other fields must be centralized under one general administrative official.

The fact remains, however, that education has become well established in practice, supported by court decisions, as a unique function of govern-

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, pp. 101, 103, 106, 107. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, 1937.

ment in this country. This does not mean that education is entirely independent of all other functions of government or that it is independent in all communities. Instead, it means that the state legislature is recognized and supported by court decisions as having the right to decide, within the limits of the state constitution, what type of educational organization is to be established, and that it may modify this plan of organization from time to time.

Trends during recent years provide rather conclusive evidence that the American people wish education to continue to be recognized basically as a unique function of government. Local moves to subordinate education politically to other functions of government have been strenuously and usually successfully resisted. There has been some centralization, particularly in fiscal matters, but this centralization usually has not interfered with the basic independence of education. There are many evidences that further study of the problems is in order and that some additional adjustments are likely to be made during the coming years.

Educators should not be in the position of seeking to perpetuate the independence of education merely because it has been independent. Instead, they should seek to study clearly and honestly the problems and issues of modern civilization and should propose or support any adjustments which seem advantageous and which will not unnecessarily handicap the educational program. A study of the relationships of education to government at the present time points to the following conclusions:

- 1) *The fact that education is established as a function of the state has not always been clearly and fully recognized even during recent years.* From time to time some representatives of the Federal Government apparently have sought to promote certain aspects of education as a federal function. Moreover, they have frequently attempted to deal directly with individual schools and local school units rather than with and through the regularly organized state educational agency. On the other hand, citizens have sometimes emphasized what they call the rights of local self-government in education without recognizing that the state has a right and obligation to provide leadership and essential services, to help to protect local communities from needless inefficiency, and to provide for the interrelations necessary to assure the proper functioning of all phases of local government.
- 2) *The schools have, in general, functioned reasonably well under the traditional status of education as an independent and unique function of government.* The evidence seems to support the point of view that education has been at least as efficient and, in some respects, more efficient than other aspects of government. If the status of education is to be changed in any respect, the proposal for a change must be evaluated in terms of its probable effect upon education.
- 3) *Any change in the structure of government which would affect the schools should guarantee that education will be kept free—or to be more exact, will be made more*

free—from partisan politics. This policy is in keeping with moves to safeguard other phases of government from needless political interference. For example, many cities have sought to obtain greater efficiency in local government by adopting the city-managership plan. Every possible safeguard is being developed or advocated to assure that government will be as free as possible from the spoils system which has all too frequently been associated with partisan politics.

- 4) *Many inefficiencies which are found in education today can be largely overcome without changing the status of education as an independent function of government.* In their zeal to promote local self-government, legislatures have sometimes, in effect at least, supported the inefficient administration of local school units and have failed to recognize, as a basic responsibility of the state, the necessity of providing safeguards to assure that adequate educational standards are observed. For example, some state systems of financial aid have tended to reward local school units for continuing inefficient types of organization.
- 5) *Many of the advantages of further integration and co-ordination in government can be obtained by voluntary co-operation and could not be guaranteed by a change in the legal status of the schools.* There is no legal provision which can guarantee the intelligent, wholehearted co-operation which is absolutely necessary to a satisfactorily functioning government. In fact, one of the greatest weaknesses in government today is failure on the part of the agencies of government to understand and apply techniques of voluntary co-operation. The failure to co-operate in assuring that the schools function as an integral phase of government can partly be charged to school leaders and partly to leaders in other branches of government on all levels. So much progress in assuring needed integration in the functioning of government is possible through voluntary co-operative effort that when those possibilities are exhausted the need for further changes may be considerably reduced or even eliminated.
- 6) *In some states and communities the move toward centralization of government has gone so far as to permit and even to encourage needless interference with the satisfactory functioning of education; in other states and communities the issue of independence of functioning may have been overemphasized to the extent that needed integration is overlooked.* The tendency in the future should be to avoid such extremes. There are some very real disadvantages and even dangers in overcentralization of government on any or all levels. The disadvantages of overemphasis on complete independence of any one governmental function are just as serious. Every change which is made from either extreme should assure that educational authorities at all levels will have a wide range of freedom in the determination of policies and the administration of schools and educational institutions, and that education will be able to render in the most efficient manner possible its unique service to society.

II. RELATIONSHIPS OF EDUCATION TO STATE GOVERNMENT

The fact that education is recognized as a function of the state does not mean that all or even most relationships of education to state gov-

ernment have been satisfactorily worked out. In fact, many of the problems of relationship are complicated and difficult to solve because of the very nature of education and of the functions it must serve. Education has some functions which involve and relate to the work of almost every other agency of government; and similarly, the functions of practically every other agency of government are related in some respects to those of education. Cordial, co-operative working relationships are of maximum importance if education and the other governmental services alike are to make their maximum contribution to society.

1. Constitutional and Statutory Provisions

Fortunately most states have made reasonable provisions for education in their constitutions. However, there are some states in which the constitutional provisions regarding education, adopted many years ago, include details which should have been left to the legislature and which restrict needlessly the proper functioning of the educational program. For example, Kentucky found that its constitutional provision requiring all school funds to be distributed on a school census basis made it impossible for the legislature to establish an adequate system of education. This provision was recently changed to make it possible for part of the funds to be apportioned on an equalization basis.

Legislative enactments affecting education sometimes occasion difficulty in working out a satisfactory program. The tradition of almost complete local autonomy has become established so strongly in a number of states that it is now difficult for these states to assume certain responsibilities which must be exercised if an adequate system of education is to be assured for all communities. The failure on the part of the states to establish adequate standards of proper supervision in connection with some important school functions often results in the exercise of such controls by local governmental agencies which are not properly qualified for these duties. For example, in many states the planning and financing of school building programs have been left almost entirely to local school authorities. If the need for satisfactory school buildings were properly recognized and adequately provided for in the program of state aid, with the state department of education charged with appropriate responsibility for supervising the local plans, the demands of municipalities or other local governing bodies for the right to exercise this supervision could be avoided.

Adequate constitutional and statutory provisions in all states will go a long way toward simplifying and clarifying the problem of local governmental relationships and toward avoiding local demands for control which might needlessly interfere with the efficiency of the school program.

2. The Authority and Influence of State Governors

During recent years there has been a growing tendency in many states to centralize power in the office of the governor. Some advocates of the short ballot have urged that the governor should be the only elective state official other than members of the legislature and that all heads of departments should be appointed by and responsible to him. This tendency toward centralization has had rather marked effect on the educational program in a number of states.

If the governor is genuinely interested in education, no serious handicaps may be encountered and some definite advantages may accrue from a strengthening of his control over the various departments of state government. However, nearly every state at one time or another is almost certain to have a governor who is so economy-minded that financial interests are put above educational interests or is so politically minded that he seeks to influence the schools in undesirable ways. For example, for many years Massachusetts was recognized as having an outstanding state department of education. Developments proved, however, that one governor could undo much of the good that had been accomplished over a long period of time.

There should, of course, be very close co-operative relationships at all times between the governor and the head of the state school system. From a long-time point of view, however, it is obviously undesirable that the head of the state school system be made subservient to or politically dependent upon the governor. Instead, the head of the state school system should be responsible to a state board of education which is selected in such manner that it is not subject to direct control by the governor.

3. The State Educational Agency

Some of the difficulties confronting education in many of the states arise from the fact that there are several state educational agencies with separate responsibilities, instead of a single board or agency which has the responsibility for co-ordinating the state's various plans for the improvement of its educational program.

With the increasing complexity of the relationships between different authorities, particularly those involving federal agencies, it is becoming more apparent that every state needs some *one* agency which can serve as a policy-forming board for all aspects of education in the state. Such a board could readily be created without unduly disturbing the functions or the efficiency of existing boards, but it should have power to review all plans of educational agencies which might affect the general program of education to be supported by the state.

4. Other State Boards and Departments

A. EDUCATIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Many states not only have state boards responsible for different types of education but also have boards for other types of public service, such as health, conservation, and the construction and maintenance of highways. Unless relationships are carefully worked out, difficulties may arise when any one of these boards attempts to prescribe technical regulations which affect the schools. Several states have adopted the plan of requiring all regulations which affect both education and some other field to be prescribed jointly by the two boards concerned. For example, the state board of health would be concerned with school sanitation; so would the state board of education. If the two boards reach an agreement with respect to a proposal pertaining to school sanitation, this concurrence should assure that the regulations would not be arbitrary or unreasonable and would not create an impossible situation for the schools.

To assist the chief state school officer in carrying out his many responsibilities, all states have established some type of department of education to operate under his supervision. The state department of education necessarily has a great many responsibilities which are more or less directly related to the responsibilities of other state departments. Regardless of the legal requirements, there are certain relationships which must be recognized and satisfactorily worked out if state government is to operate efficiently and if the educational program is to be developed satisfactorily.

In few states have entirely satisfactory working relationships been established between the state department of education and all other state departments. By tradition, each department has generally attempted to carry out the functions assigned to it by law and, unfortunately in many cases, has tended to ignore some of the working relationships which are essential if the entire state program is to function satisfactorily. Satisfactory relationships cannot be expected to develop as a matter of chance or tradition. They must be planned in terms of the functions and services to be rendered. The fact that a service has been begun by one agency does not necessarily mean that the service should be continued by that agency. A periodic analysis and re-evaluation of departmental relationships is highly desirable.

The procedure in developing a satisfactory program of working relationships between the state department of education² and any other state

² The term "state department of education" as used here and on subsequent pages should be interpreted to include the state board of education, the chief state school officer, and the department of education.

department, such as the department of health, for example, should be somewhat as follows:³

- 1) A statement should be co-operatively prepared giving briefly the basic philosophy and the guiding principles to be used in determining the field in which each function belongs.
- 2) The functions in the related field (such as health) which clearly come under education should be listed in one column. In a parallel column should be listed the functions which have some educational implications but which clearly belong in the other field. All borderline functions should then be listed in a third column. This listing should be in accordance with the basic philosophy adopted rather than in terms of existing practices and laws.
- 3) Borderline functions (those listed in a third column) should then be reclassified and listed in either the first or second column in accordance with the implications of the basic philosophy and the guiding principles agreed upon.
- 4) For each function a statement should be prepared listing the services and activities inherent in the function.
- 5) Those functions or activities belonging in the field of education, if any, which are now being performed by the other department (such as health) should be checked. Likewise, those functions or activities belonging in the other field (such as health), if any, which are being performed by education should be checked in some other manner.
- 6) A program should be co-operatively formulated for making the necessary changes in laws, organization, and activities to insure that each agency can carry on its proper functions with adequate provision for all desirable inter-relationships.

The procedure recommended above cannot be expected to be accepted by all departments of state government as a matter of course. Close and cordial working relationships will have to be established and carried out over a period of time before any state department will be willing to co-operate in an analysis such as is recommended here. In nearly every state, however, an analysis of this type would be helpful because functions have often been assumed or assigned without very careful advance determination of their proper placement. Each agency of the state, or for that matter of the Federal Government, has a tendency to render directly any service for which it sees the need and to become interested in expanding and acquiring greater power and prestige in relation to that service. As a result of these tendencies there is too much competition and not enough co-ordination.

³ Materials on pp. 160-61 have been adapted from unpublished recommendations of a subcommittee of the Study Commission on State Educational Problems of the National Council of Chief State School Officers, on "Relationships between State Departments of Education and Other Organizations and Agencies Interested in Education."

Part of the responsibility for this situation undoubtedly rests with education. In some cases the state department of education has not been willing to assume certain functions which it should assume, perhaps because it did not see the need for the service or because it did not have the funds or personnel to render the service. An important objective of the state department of education should be to assist in analyzing the situation and developing a desirable functional program involving all essential co-operative relationships.

As a means of assuring better co-ordination, the following principles are suggested for guidance:

- 1) *All instructional materials proposed for school use by any state department should be developed from their inception in co-operation with the state department of education to assure that they will contribute properly to the objectives of the educational program.* If, for example, the department of conservation is interested in preparing a bulletin on conservation for use in the schools, it should take up the proposal with the state department of education so that the materials may be co-operatively prepared from the beginning. It should be understood that only proposals which contribute to the desirable objectives of the state program of education will be approved for co-operative action.
- 2) *All funds for state educational services should be included in the appropriation for the state department of education.* Appropriations should be made to the department which should properly exercise the function in question, rather than to the department which is most aggressively seeking opportunity to establish the new service or which is for the moment the most willing to undertake the service.
- 3) *If any other state department desires to promote educational services in its general area for which funds are not provided through the state department of education, such department should seek to have the service made available through the department of education instead of seeking authority to provide the services directly to the schools.* If possible, funds for such services should be transferred to the state department of education. If not, the state department of education should be authorized to provide the personnel with the understanding that salaries are to be paid by the other department concerned.
- 4) *It should be understood that every program involving instructional or supervisory services for the schools of the state should be carried out through the state department of education.* Any person rendering such services through the state department of education should serve as a regular member of the state department staff under the direction of the chief state school officer.
- 5) *When any such co-operative program is contemplated, the entire plan should be carefully prepared and approved in advance by the chief state school officer and the head of the other state department concerned.*

B. CO-OPERATIVE PROCEDURES

There are certain state boards or departments in nearly every state which have functions closely related to the educational program of the

state.⁴ Appropriate measures are here suggested for co-ordinating the related services of some of the important state agencies with the program of the department of education.

a. State Planning Board. During recent years, most states have established some type of state planning board. In some states the planning board thus far has existed largely on paper and has not developed a very active or comprehensive program. In other states, the state planning board has definitely been established as an agency responsible for integrating planning at the state level.

The Interstate Committee on Postwar Reconstruction and Development, a committee of the National Council of State Governments, has recently called attention to an important principle which should be recognized in considering relationships between state departments of education and state planning boards:

To make state postwar planning significant and practical, it should, therefore, be done as far as possible within the particular departments and operating agencies upon which will fall the responsibility of carrying specific plans into effect. Only these working agencies have the experience and trained personnel which qualifies them to do a competent job within the field of their specialization. . . . A central postwar agency should not do work which falls within the province of existing state departments or which existing departments have the facilities and personnel to perform.⁵

In keeping with this principle, the following suggestions seem to provide a desirable basis of working relationships for state planning boards and departments of education on problems of interest to both agencies:

- 1) The state planning board should recognize that the state department of education is responsible for (a) assembling data on the state level essential to satisfactory school planning and for (b) carrying on studies which will provide and use effectively the information needed.
- 2) The state department of education should not only have facilities for but should actually have in operation a continuing program for assembling information and carrying on studies which directly involve educational planning.
- 3) It should be recognized that the state department of education is responsible for preparing, after obtaining adequate service and suggestions from the field, a tentative program of proposed plans in the field of education. Parts of this program will need to be submitted to the state board of education for action and some parts will probably need to be submitted to the legislature.

⁴ Materials on pp. 162-69 have been adapted from chap. iv of Southern States Work-Conference Bulletin No. 1, 1942, *State Responsibility for the Organization and Administration of Education*, Tallahassee, Florida.

⁵ "Report and Recommendations on Postwar Problems in the States." Chicago: National Council of State Governments, 1943 (mimeographed).

- 4) The state planning board should serve as a clearinghouse for information relating to all phases of state planning, including educational planning. The parts of the educational program which are directly related to state planning should be cleared with the state planning board before being submitted to the state board of education or to the legislature.
- 5) The state planning board should not itself undertake to make detailed studies of education except as such studies are integral aspects of studies relating to other phases of state government. However, the state planning board may sometimes be requested to co-operate with the state department of education in carrying on certain studies, or the state department of education may directly co-operate with the planning board in carrying on broad studies which involve education.

b. Office of the Attorney General. A number of states assign a member of the attorney general's staff to educational problems. Such a procedure is always helpful because the person so assigned can more readily acquaint himself with the crucial problems and issues in the field of education and can view a given situation in the light of the general purposes of the educational program as well as with consideration for the specific law involved. In the state of Michigan an assistant attorney general is assigned to the state department of education and serves as a member of the state department staff as well as a member of the attorney general's staff. In New York the state commissioner of education has his own legal staff, the head of which is called the chief counsel.

There is always a possibility that some opinions rendered by the attorney general may tend to determine educational policies instead of merely interpreting the laws. It is to the interest of education as well as of the attorney general's office that this situation not be permitted to develop. If the state department of education maintains a classified file of attorney general's opinions, many questions which arise may be answered in terms of opinions previously rendered.

The following suggestions should serve for guidance in establishing a program of desirable working relationships between the staff of the chief state school officer and that of the attorney general:

- 1) The office of the attorney general should render opinions relating only to the interpretation and clarification of school laws. All matters involving questions of policy rather than of law should be referred to the state department of education for action.
- 2) Requests for opinions of the attorney general on educational matters should preferably be cleared through the state department of education. If such a policy has never been established in the state and it does not seem feasible to establish the policy, the chief state school officer should receive a copy of each opinion rendered on an educational issue.

- 3) When requests for opinions involve controversial points and decisions which would affect the functioning of the schools, the attorney general should, as a matter of policy, consult with the chief state school officer

c. State Auditing Department. In some states the auditing of accounts of the local school systems is carried out under the supervision of the state department of education. In many states, however, there is a separate state auditing department which has, as one of its functions, the auditing of local school accounts. Auditing should be concerned primarily with determining whether legal provisions relating to school funds and school accounting have been met rather than with the wisdom of the policies which have been followed. Cases have arisen in a number of states in which the auditing department has attempted to establish educational policies through exercise of the auditing function. State auditing of local accounts is important as a safeguard against misuse of public funds and this service can be efficiently performed without interference with the normal functioning of the schools if the following working relationships are observed:

- 1) The state department of education should be responsible for prescribing the accounting forms and procedures to be used as the basis of the financial records and reports of local school systems. If these steps have not been satisfactorily carried out, the auditors should take up the matter with the representatives of the state department of education with a view to suggesting improvements.
- 2) The state department of education, rather than the state auditing department, should be responsible for assisting the school officials in keeping their accounts in satisfactory form and in preparing their reports properly.
- 3) The plans and procedures for making and reporting school audits should be prepared co-operatively by the state department of education and the state auditing department.
- 4) The auditing department should be responsible for (a) determining whether the accounts are up to date and have been kept in accordance with the prescribed system, (b) determining whether the requirements of law and the regulations of the state board have been observed, and (c) reporting accurately the financial status of the school district.
- 5) Any matters arising which involve educational policies should be referred by the auditing department to the state department of education for decision.

d. State Department of Health. The state department of health and the state department of education have many problems in common. Each is concerned with the actual protection of the health of the school population, with the appropriate instruction in health habits of different age groups, and with the ultimate development of physically sound and healthy citizens. In view of the similarity of fundamental aims of these

two departments the following suggestions should be generally observed in developing a program of working relationships:

- 1) The state department of education should recognize that preventive and remedial treatment are primarily the responsibility of the health authorities. The state department of health should recognize that health instruction is primarily a function of the schools.
- 2) As a matter of policy, state and local health officials should work out all schedules for physical examination or medical inspection of pupils in co-operation with school authorities.
- 3) The state board of education and the state board of health should jointly approve all regulations directly pertaining to school health before such regulations become effective.
- 4) If the state health authorities have power to close schools or to condemn school buildings because of inadequate provisions for safety or sanitation, the chief state school officer should be notified whenever any such order is issued and informed regarding the cause of the action.

e. State Highway and Safety Departments. State school officials should be kept informed at all times regarding plans for rerouting highways or for developing new highways within the state, and the highway officials should be advised regarding plans for the consolidation of schools, routing of school buses, and other related matters. Questions of shelters at school bus-stops arise in many states and plans for the provision of satisfactory shelters should be co-operatively worked out by representatives of these two departments. If the highway department is responsible for inspecting all vehicles, co-operative plans should also be developed for the inspection of school buses. Highway officials can give much valuable assistance in connection with the regulation of transportation of pupils. Such questions as the minimum age of school bus drivers, the regulation of other motor traffic when school buses are receiving or discharging pupils, standards of construction and regulations pertaining to the maintenance of vehicles used in transporting pupils, and standards for the licensing of bus drivers will require co-operative planning.

Some states have established a special department concerned with problems of safety. Every state has a great many problems involving school safety. It must be clearly recognized that the matter of safety instruction for school pupils is the responsibility of the state department of education and that the other departments which may be concerned with different aspects of public safety can render considerable assistance through co-operative effort.

f. State Finance Department. During recent years there has been a marked tendency in almost every state to centralize control over the financial operations of various public services in a state department of

finance. Also, a number of states have established tax commissions with regulatory powers over taxing procedures. With respect to taxation particularly these centralized controls frequently involve the co-ordination of the revenue provisions for schools and other governmental units in the same locality. Distinct tendencies toward centralization of financial control may be noted in areas such as the following:

- 1) Limitation of millage levies. This type of control may take the form of an over-all property tax limitation for all taxing units in a given locality, as in the case of Ohio. More commonly the statutes provide for a millage rate which may be levied especially for school purposes, with a specified limitation of the maximum rate to be imposed. Some more adequate and less arbitrary method of fiscal control than narrow millage limitations would be advantageous from the point of view of long-time planning for the improvement of the state school system, as well as for the continuing adaptation of local school programs to changing community needs.
- 2) Budgetary approval. In several states the responsibility for budgetary supervision, including supervision of bond issues for school purposes, is vested in a fiscal agency of the state government rather than in the department of education. This fiscal agency may theoretically have the advantage of being able to judge the school situation in the light of the entire local financial situation. However, no state fiscal department can become as familiar with all local educational problems and needs as the state department of education. If such supervision is vested in the fiscal department, this department by all means should keep in close touch with the state department of education and largely follow the suggestions of that department. However, if that is to be done there is no particular advantage in vesting the responsibility for supervision of school finance in a separate state fiscal department. The better plan would seem to be to vest the responsibility in the state department of education which should keep in touch with the fiscal department in connection with all local fiscal matters.

It is recognized that there are many types of budgetary supervision and control, some of which are far more desirable than others. The state should not be interested in seeking to control every item in the local budget but rather in assuring that the local budget is properly prepared and provides only for bona fide educational needs. The following suggestions with reference to state budgetary supervision and control seem to offer reasonable safeguards:

- a) Some type of state supervision of school budgets is desirable to protect against local abuse of the budgetary and taxing privilege. The state department of education, within reasonable limits prescribed by law, should be the agency to exercise this supervision.
- b) Local budgets should be prepared in accordance with prescribed regulations and should be balanced in the respect that proposed expenditures plus reserves should not exceed anticipated receipts plus balances, and should include only receipts which can reasonably be anticipated.

- c) The state should not have authority to require changes in specific items of a school budget which has been properly prepared, but should recommend changes which are regarded as desirable for the consideration of the local school board.
- d) The state department of education, because of its knowledge of school needs and its familiarity with existing school programs, should be equipped to co-operate in and perhaps even to supervise school debt service and the issuance of school securities.

The trend toward state control over budgets of institutions of higher learning has apparently been more marked than that toward state control over budgets of local districts. In practically all states some control over the budgets of institutions of higher learning is vested in the existing state boards or in the office of the governor. This tendency may have arisen partly because of the fact that most states do not have one central controlling board for all aspects of education. But other influences have undoubtedly contributed to the variability in procedure. The impression prevails that budgetary control over institutions of higher learning in some states is administered largely on a political basis. In some such cases the effect on institutions of higher learning has been most unfortunate. In contrast, the central state boards controlling institutional budgets have usually acted with wisdom and discretion and have rendered a constructive service.

- 3) Control of appropriations. In some cases the legislature itself has assumed some very definite responsibilities for fiscal control over the departments of state government and the state institutions. This control has sometimes taken the form of prescribing in detail the services for which funds in each department may be expended and even in some instances of prescribing specific positions and the salaries for those positions. Such detailed legislative control not only is undesirable from the point of view of an adequately functioning organization but also may be pernicious in that political influence is likely to be used in determining positions or regulating salaries.

In an effort to keep their budgets balanced, a number of states have enacted provisions authorizing the governor or some central budgetary authority to decrease appropriations whenever sufficient revenues are not available to pay the appropriations in full. Fortunately in most cases appropriations for elementary and secondary schools are not subject to this provision. Rather commonly, however, appropriations for institutions of higher learning are subject to reduction under stated conditions. If appropriations can be reduced during the fiscal year, the possibility of such reduction is bound to affect educational planning adversely. An appropriation for education once made should be effective at least for a full fiscal year without being subject to reduction.

In a recent report on *Fiscal Control over State Higher Education*, the present situation confronting institutions of higher learning is summarized as follows:

"A marked trend evidently has developed among the states to transfer fiscal control over state higher education institutions from the governing

boards to the governor or some state central executive agency. Through this control it is possible for the governor or agency to limit the appropriation, curtail, and, in a measure, determine the items of expenditure of the institutions, thereby affecting the advancement of their educational programs and services.”⁶

- 4) State purchase of materials and supplies. Only a relatively few states have undertaken state purchase of supplies or equipment used by local school systems. North Carolina, during recent years, has undertaken state purchase of certain items, such as school buses, and as a result has effected a marked economy. Equally good results, however, apparently have been obtained by other states which have worked out plans for co-operative purchasing of certain types of school materials and equipment. In Alabama, where the co-operative plan prevails, the state does not actually purchase and keep title to the items as in North Carolina but rather serves as a purchasing agent for the local school units which pool their orders and thereby get the benefit of the marked saving which results from purchasing materials or equipment in greater quantities.

Centralized state purchase of items for state departments, including state departments of education and institutions of higher learning, has become far more common than co-operative arrangements among local school units. Such central purchasing may have many distinct advantages if adequate provision is made for recognition of all educational needs. If, however, the dollars-and-cents savings are considered more important than the meeting of educational needs, considerable harm may result from such procedures.

While the central purchasing agency may be given the responsibility for establishing criteria and minimum standards to promote uniformity and economy, the responsibility for selecting and purchasing all school equipment, material, and supplies should continue to be vested in the educational authorities.

g. Other State Departments. The relationships discussed above involve only certain state departments with which there are constantly recurring relationships as far as education is concerned. From time to time matters arise which involve some relationships with almost every state department. For example, policies relating to liability insurance or compensation involve school employees as well as employees of industrial concerns. Questions of child labor and school attendance are so closely intertwined that a continuing program of co-operative and constructive relationships is essential if the problems in either field are to be solved. State welfare boards commonly control the licensing of agencies responsible for child care, but they should not have authority to license educational institutions. State personnel or civil service departments may

⁶ *Fiscal Control over State Higher Education*, p. 46. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 8, 1940. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

properly establish standards, prescribe salary scales, and conduct examinations for persons to be employed in the state department of education as well as in other departments.

In all such cases a carefully defined program of satisfactory working relations will avoid confusion and conflict. It is obviously not possible for a brief treatment to give attention to all relationships between education and the state government. Criteria which have been outlined on previous pages should, however, be useful for general guidance in working out specific programs for co-operative relationships which are essential if the problems involved in the organization of the state's service enterprises are to be satisfactorily solved.

III. RELATIONSHIPS OF EDUCATION TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT

While, according to prevailing legal theory, schools are state institutions which are responsible to the state through the local board of education (an agency of the state) and are not in any fundamental sense responsible or subordinate to local governments, almost every conceivable type of relationship is found to exist in practice. In some municipalities, schools are almost completely subordinated to the local government in that the board is appointed by the mayor and the schools are dependent on the municipal authorities for funds to be received from local sources of revenue. New York City provides an example of this type of relationship. In other municipalities, such as many of the larger cities in New Jersey, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Indiana, schools are chiefly independent except for budgetary controls exercised by civil authorities. In still others, the schools are responsible directly to the state and have no legal responsibility whatever for consulting the local government officials unless they choose to do so.

The legal relationship of education to local government is prescribed by the constitution and laws of the various states. The constitution may declare local school units within the state entirely independent of local government. On the other hand, it may leave the decision as to the degree of independence to the state legislature which may establish an independent system of education, or may make the system independent in certain types of cities and make it more or less dependent on local government in other types of cities. The significant point is that *the people of the state have the power to decide the degree of dependence or independence of the school systems*. The decision to make schools dependent on local government or to keep them independent is influenced by a great many different interests.

After a careful study of cities of over 50,000 population, Henry and Kerwin reached the conclusion that

in the case of the schools there is evidently a more decided popular opposition to any kind of municipal absorption than in the case of other activities previously absorbed by city governments. Outstanding citizens, many of them intensely interested in good government, meet the suggestion of placing the schools under city government either with derision or with vigorous opposition. Nowhere may one discover a popular movement either in existence or in the making for this kind of a step.⁷

One of the chief reasons why citizens oppose the establishment of education as a municipal function is their fear that the schools will be controlled by partisan politics. They have observed various forms of corruption in municipal government from time to time and have determined that schools must be safeguarded against the evil effects of such practices.

The fact that the schools may be independent of municipal government, however, does not imply that they have been safeguarded from partisan politics. Sometimes municipal political machines have been able to exert considerable control over the schools even in systems where education is an independent function. Moreover, school systems have sometimes developed a brand of politics of their own because they have come under the control of certain interest groups within the community.

In most rural areas the local school units are independent of local governmental units. Usually there is a separate board of education elected by the people to determine policies and to provide for the operation of the schools. If any degree of dependence has been established, it is most likely to be in the financial field. In certain states some local governmental authority has been charged with the responsibility of reviewing and approving rural school budgets.

In practice, a great amount of voluntary co-operation between school and other governmental agencies may be found regardless of legal requirements. Such co-operation is highly desirable and is helping to solve a great many common problems; however, there is need for even more co-operative effort than is found at the present time. The degree of co-operation depends upon the traditions that have grown up in the community and the attitude of the various officials. Even though co-operation is required by law, the degree and effectiveness of such co-operation varies considerably with different groups of officials.

The relationships between the local educational officials and the other officials of local government, in general, should be governed by the same principles that are applicable on the state level. Functions which are definitely educational should be performed by local school officials. If

⁷ Nelson B. Henry and Jerome G. Kerwin, *Schools and City Government*, p. 2. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

the functions of other local officials relate directly to education, a co-operative plan should be developed for determining how those functions may best be exercised. It is appropriate to consider here some aspects of the relationships of certain local agencies in the light of their major functions. Similar relationships in such fields as health, recreation, and welfare are considered in a subsequent chapter.

1. School Elections

Practices vary with reference to school elections. In some entire states and in certain communities of other states, school elections are held at the same time and at the same polling places as general elections. In other states and communities, school elections are nonpartisan and are separate from general elections. If school elections are held independently, there should be less possibility of school issues becoming confused with other political issues.

In most states, provision is made for election of the local board of education by the people. The board is selected as a policy-determining body to represent the people. Most relations between the educational system and local governmental officials are, therefore, through the board and the educational officers representing the board. In such situations there is no reason for the schools to be dominated by local governmental officials, although such domination frequently occurs as a result of connivance or indifference. In municipalities in which the school board is appointed by the mayor, even though the school system is otherwise independent of municipal authority, board members are likely to feel considerable responsibility to the mayor with the result that municipal officials may tend to dominate the school situation.

2. School Budgets

Some local governmental agency is designated to approve all local budgets, including school budgets, more frequently than to exercise any other function with reference to education. This is particularly true of municipalities, but even in the case of rural school systems, county budget boards have been established in some states with authority to approve school budgets.

Approval of the school budget by some agency of local government means divided responsibility. If the local governmental agency has authority to reduce the school budget, it is likely to exert considerable influence on educational policies. In such a situation, the voters cannot hold either the school board or the local budgetary body entirely responsible. Each can evade responsibility with the result that the voters are likely to become confused. If school officials are expected to be responsible for the

schools, their responsibility should be such that they can be held accountable to the people in financial as well as in educational matters.

The degree of budgetary control exercised by local governmental officials varies considerably. The most undesirable type of budgetary control exists where budget boards have authority to reduce or eliminate *any item* in the school budget. In such a situation the local government officials may, in a very real sense, determine the school policies. They may even determine the number of employees and the salaries to be paid those employees. There can be no logical justification for this type of budgetary control unless the schools are to be made completely subservient to local government.

A less objectionable type of budgetary control is found in those situations where the local governmental agency can reduce the total amount of the school budget but has no authority whatever with reference to the separate appropriation items. Even this type of control has certain objections which must be recognized. Authority to disapprove a proposed increase in the budget, even of a small amount, may retard school progress.

A still less objectionable type of budgetary control is found in those situations where the local governmental agency may reduce the total amount in the budget only when the millage levy exceeds a certain amount or when the budget is proposed to be increased by more than a specified percentage of the expenditures of the preceding year.

If provision is made for local hearings on the school budget, and if requirements for preparing the budget on a sound basis are prescribed by the state department of education, there would seem to be little need for supervision of school budgets by any agency of local government other than the school board itself.

3. Assessment and Collection of Taxes

School officials necessarily are concerned with assessment policies, particularly in those states which prescribe specific limitations on school tax rates. They are likewise concerned with provisions for safeguarding tax revenues and for insuring that the schools receive their proportionate share of the taxes collected. School officials, therefore, should keep themselves informed regarding the policies and practices of local assessing and collecting officials and be prepared to assist in bringing about any needed improvements.

4. Bond Issues

In school systems which are independent, procedures relating to bond issues are usually prescribed by state law and any supervision which is

needed may be exercised by the state. The law usually provides adequate safeguards to assure that millage levies required to retire bond issues will not be excessive. In school systems which are wholly or partly dependent, bond issues are often voted by the local government and may be an obligation against the municipal or county government rather than directly against the school district. The governmental relationships involved in school bond issues will, therefore, vary in accordance with the allocation of bonding power. As school systems succeed in getting their school building construction more nearly on a pay-as-you-go basis, relationships involving bond issues will be less significant, although current budgetary problems may become more difficult with the increase in revenue required to finance building programs by means of annual tax levies.

5. School and Community Planning

As communities grow larger and community life becomes more complicated, the importance of comprehensive planning becomes more obvious. The fact that schools and communities have developed during the past century without much careful planning explains many of the problems which are encountered at the present time. The primary responsibility for initiating the planning of improvements in the school program should properly rest with the local school officials. However, if those plans have a direct bearing upon plans which should be developed by and for the entire community, a carefully developed program of co-operation is essential. The schools should not expect to do the community planning nor should the other local governmental agencies expect to do the school planning. Each phase should be considered in proper relationship to the other, and all responsible agencies should participate in the planning.

IV. RELATIONSHIPS OF EDUCATION TO THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Most leaders in educational and civic affairs are agreed that the Federal Government should be greatly concerned about education. From a long-time point of view the welfare of the nation depends upon the adequacy of the educational program maintained in the various states. The nation, therefore, cannot escape an interest in and concern about this program. However, the Federal Government should not expect or undertake to exercise control over the state and local school systems.

At the present time the relations of the Federal Government to education are distressingly confused. As shown by developments during recent years, there are leaders who would inject the Federal Government directly into education even though such a step might tend to duplicate what the states are now doing and, indirectly at least, weaken the effectiveness of state programs of education. On the other hand, there are persons who

fear that any active interest of the Federal Government in education, particularly if this interest is expressed in the form of appropriations, is likely to result in federal control.

One very significant suggestion for improving federal-state relations which appeared in a recent Treasury Department report stresses the importance and possibilities of interstate co-operation:

The Federal Government has a vital interest in maintaining and strengthening both state and local governments. Much valuable energy has been wasted unnecessarily in quarreling over the proper spheres of the Federal Government and the states, when the seeds of solid achievement lie in the scantily tilled field of intergovernmental co-operation and co-ordination. Progress in this field requires some willingness to compromise, to surrender vested interests, and to forget jealousies on the part of both the Federal Government and the states. . . . Interstate co-operation, to function most efficiently, needs a "friend at court" within the Federal Government.⁸

The Study Commission on State Educational Problems representing the National Council of Chief State School Officers reached the conclusion that this is one of the most crucial problems facing American democracy today. The Study Commission pointed out that in some areas conditions are little short of chaotic and that not only the public but many educators have become confused and baffled by recent developments. In its report, approved by the National Council of Chief State School Officers in December, 1943, the Study Commission stated:

We now find a great many agencies of the Federal Government directly interested in education—not as an integrated process of developing capable citizens for a democracy but as a means of promoting the specific ends or aims they have in mind. In general, each agency tends to become interested in specific aspects of the problem and to want to work directly with the schools in attempting to solve the problem. At the federal level, there has usually tended to be little or no integration. The existing educational organization, particularly at the state level, has generally been totally disregarded or circumvented. Instead, many noneducational federal agencies have tended to develop their own elaborate, expensive, and cumbersome organizations at the federal, regional, and state levels for dealing directly with the individual local school systems.⁹

The Study Commission in the same report proposed a number of guiding criteria to be observed in developing a program involving sound relationships. The following are included:

⁸ *Federal, State, and Local Government Fiscal Relations*, pp. 1, 6. Senate Document No. 69. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, 1943.

⁹ Study Commission on State Educational Problems, "Report on Federal, State, and Local Relationships in Education," *State Government*, XVII (April, 1944), 318, 323.

- 1) The participation of the Federal Government in public education should be limited to financial aid and the provision of leadership and information.
- 2) The United States Office of Education is the regularly constituted agency of the Federal Government to provide the information and leadership. Therefore the participation of the Federal Government in public education should be through the Office of Education.
- 3) Since education is a function of the states, the Office of Education should deal only through the regularly constituted state educational authorities in the several states.¹⁰

The Study Commission also suggested that the Federal Government should make provision for applying these criteria through a defensible plan for (a) reviewing proposed legislation to assure the proper allocation of educational activities, and (b) studying the present allocation of educational activities for the purpose of securing the reallocation of those now improperly allocated. It was suggested that the United States Office of Education, in order to function as the one federal agency responsible for correlating and integrating all educational activities at the federal level, should (a) co-operate with each other federal agency in determining the educational problems and needs growing out of the legitimate functions of such agency, (b) seek to discover the contributions each agency may properly make to education, and (c) aid in co-ordinating the educational interests of each agency with the entire educational program.

The Study Commission concluded that each federal agency interested in educational activities which might concern states and local school systems should be charged with the duty of clearing its educational proposals through the Office of Education and that each state should expect as a matter of policy to work with the United States Office of Education on all matters involving federal-state relationships in education.

1. The United States Office of Education

The purposes of the United States Office of Education include, as defined in the act establishing the office, "collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

For some reason, leaders representing the citizens of the nation have never been willing to establish the Office of Education on such a basis

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

that it can carry out these functions effectively. Every study that has been made of the services of this office has called attention to the fact that it has been understaffed, that, in general, salaries paid staff members are not adequate to attract the best talent available in the country, that funds for printing have been too limited to permit the publication of all of the important information assembled and results of studies that have been made, and that funds available for travel have been inadequate to permit members of the office staff to render the services that should be expected. It is important that plans be developed for overcoming these handicaps in the near future.

All authorities seem agreed on the importance of strengthening the position of the United States Office of Education in the Federal Government and enabling it to perform more satisfactorily the services needed in education at the federal level.¹¹ Among the most prominent proposals which have been submitted are the following:

- 1) Create a department of education with a secretary who will serve as a member of the cabinet. As a matter of fact the present Office was first created as a federal department of education but for some reason the status was changed before the department was fully established. The proposal for the re-establishment of a federal department of education with a secretary of education as a member of the President's cabinet was strongly supported by the National Advisory Committee on Education in its 1931 report.¹²
- 2) Develop the Office of Education as an integral unit in a department of the Federal Government which would include also health and the social welfare services. In fact this proposal, which was submitted a few years ago by the President's Committee on Administrative Management,¹³ was carried into operation when the Office of Education was transferred from the Department of Interior to the Federal Security Agency. Recent developments, however, indicate that the status of the Office and of education at the federal level was not improved by the transfer. In fact, many persons believe that the present status is in many respects even less satisfactory than the status at any time during recent years.
- 3) Establish the Office of Education as a semi-independent agency under the supervision of an advisory board. This plan of organization for the Office would parallel somewhat the plan of organization of education in the various

¹¹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, p. 107. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1938, p. 107.

¹² *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I, *Committee Findings and Recommendations*, pp. 93-94, 103. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education (744 Jackson Place), 1931.

¹³ *Report of the President's Committee on Administrative Management*, p. 35. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937.

states. It should help to promote the recognition of education at the federal level as a unique function of government.

The advisory committee on education recommended the utilization by the Office of an advisory council made up of the chief state school officers.¹⁴ The John Dewey Society in its sixth yearbook recommended the appointment of a representative lay advisory board of eleven members.¹⁵ The Educational Policies Commission¹⁶ and other educational agencies¹⁷ have strongly advocated the establishment of an advisory commission or board with power to select the Commissioner of Education on a nonpartisan basis and to serve as a policy-making body.

2. Noneducational Agencies

During recent years it has become apparent that many of the non-educational agencies of the Federal Government prefer to work directly with local schools and school systems rather than through the United States Office of Education or through the state departments. Indirectly, these tendencies have weakened both the United States Office of Education and the state departments of education. The fundamental issues involved cannot be ignored much longer, if further confusion is to be avoided. There are now so many agencies of the Federal Government attempting to deal directly with the schools that school leaders are greatly disturbed. Yet some local school leaders and college representatives have been sufficiently flattered by this direct attention that they are ready and willing to work with the agencies which can provide the most funds and services regardless of the ultimate effect on the educational program.

It is also becoming evident that the most certain way to bring about federal control of education is for Congress to appropriate to noneducational agencies of the Federal Government substantial sums of money which can be used for broadly defined purposes, including education. When these agencies make any portion of the funds available for education, they impose their own arbitrary regulations which tend to develop control over education. Thus we have a situation where Congress has refused to provide direct general aid for education because of the assumption that it might tend to result in undesirable controls. Yet Congress has made available substantial sums of money to noneducational agencies

¹⁴ *Report of the Advisory Committee on Education*, pp. 191, 192. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

¹⁵ *Mobilizing Educational Resources for Winning the War and the Peace*, p. 233. Sixth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.

¹⁶ *The Structure and Administration of Education*, p. 107. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, 1938.

¹⁷ See, for example, Alexander G. Ruthven, "We Can Do Away with Bureaucratic Control," *Nation's Schools*, XXXIV (July, 1944), 20-21

which have used these funds for educational purposes in such a manner that undesirable controls have developed.

An analysis of some of the programs developed during recent years should help to make clear the problems and issues involved. The principles concerning relationships presented on previous pages have been used as one basis for determining desirable and undesirable features of these programs.

a. The Work Projects Administration. The Work Projects Administration, which has recently been discontinued, operated for a number of years under various names as an organization to provide employment on government projects for persons who would not otherwise be employed.

- 1) *Some desirable features:* (a) Provided employment for some educational personnel and (b) provided certain desirable and commonly neglected educational services and facilities.
- 2) *Some undesirable features:* (a) Developed federalized schools and a federalized educational staff. For example, WPA nursery schools, adult schools, and other federally supported schools were established in many states. These schools were not established as definite parts of the state systems of education but as federal schools. (b) These federalized schools, to some extent at least, competed with instead of strengthening existing state educational organizations. (c) In general, WPA officials dealt directly with local communities rather than through state departments of education.

b. The National Youth Administration. This organization has also been discontinued but may be revived in some form unless the states develop adequate plans for caring for youth groups.

- 1) *Some desirable features:* (a) Encouraged a desirable work program for youth and (b) made it possible for a large number of deserving youth to continue in school.
- 2) *Some undesirable features:* (a) Established an elaborate federal organization instead of working through existing state educational agencies; (b) developed a system of federalized schools which tended to compete with existing state and local school programs and particularly with vocational schools; (c) encouraged youth to look to the Federal Government for assistance rather than to local communities and to the state; and (d) the funds expended could have been used much more advantageously and economically if made available to and administered by the state educational authorities.

c. The Public Works Administration. This organization has now been discontinued but is likely to be revived in some form following the war to supervise public works programs.

- 1) *Some desirable features:* (a) Encouraged and made possible much desirable school-building construction and reduced unemployment; and (b) in general, maintained high construction standards, resulting in some excellent buildings from a structural point of view.

- 2) *Some undesirable features:* (a) Helped wealthy communities more than those in greatest need of buildings because the wealthy communities were usually in best position to match the grants; (b) often tended to deal directly with local communities and to ignore state plans and regulations, sometimes promoting construction at centers where buildings should not have been constructed; (c) often needlessly increased costs by "red tape" procedure and federally imposed standards; and (d) sometimes overstimulated local capital outlay expenditures and disrupted budgetary procedures as a result of the policy of making grants which required matching.

d. The Federal Works Agency. This new organization has expanded rapidly since the beginning of the war as a result of the large appropriations to aid in maintaining normal community projects in war training and industrial areas.

- 1) *Some desirable features:* (a) Assisted in maintaining normal school and community facilities in areas which have become congested and overburdened as a result of war-connected developments; and (b) encouraged the provision of needed services that otherwise probably would not have been considered.
- 2) *Some undesirable features:* (a) Has imposed many highly arbitrary regulations developed by personnel who did not understand educational procedures and has changed these regulations from time to time with the result that school leaders who depended on the Federal Works Agency for funds have seldom been certain as to where they stood financially; (b) by its earlier policies stimulated undesirable competition among community agencies and encouraged "grab-bag" tendencies; (c) has developed administrative procedures which resulted in by-passing the United States Office of Education and, in general, state departments of education; (d) has sought to work directly with local school systems; (e) has delayed decisions and grants so much at times that some communities could not attempt to maintain normal school facilities; (f) even though funds should have been earmarked for school projects that were approved early in the year, the program was so administered that funds were exhausted in the middle of the year, resulting in uncertainty and confusion for schools until Congress provided a deficiency appropriation; (g) has largely ignored recommendations of educators and even of the National Council of Chief State School Officers for improving procedures involving the schools; and (h) has given the impression that it is seeking to perpetuate some of its wartime power and that it hopes also to become the postwar public works agency for the nation.

e. The Food Distribution Administration. This is a relatively new agency as far as educational projects are concerned. During the past year it made available substantial funds for school lunches, the authorization for this purpose being fifty million dollars.

- 1) *Some desirable features:* (a) Has helped to assure reasonably adequate school lunches for a large number of children, and (b) in most states seems to be seeking to work with and through state departments of education.

- 2) *Some undesirable features:* (a) Provides contracts with individual schools, largely nullifying its declared intention of working with and through state departments of education; (b) like many other noneducational federal agencies, has tended to prescribe needlessly detailed controls; (c) without consulting educators, has prescribed for use by the schools forms which are unnecessarily burdensome and complicated; (d) has changed decisions after they were announced, thereby causing needless confusion; (e) although claiming there were no funds to assist state departments of education in employing necessary supervisory personnel, has employed a staff of its own to work with local schools in making supervisory audits; (f) its representatives have sometimes sought to apply "pressure" to get local schools lined up to use federal funds; and (g) has had a large appropriation to be distributed chiefly on a subjective basis. Schools in greatest need have often not been able to get as much benefit from the program as other schools in better financial position.

f. The Office of Defense Transportation. This is distinctly a wartime agency but has some possible postwar implications for school transportation. The Office of Defense Transportation is one of the few federal noneducational agencies which has shown a genuine interest in seeking and following the recommendations of school officials in developing its program involving school transportation. It has been willing to accord the state educational authorities the responsibility for obtaining the cooperation of local school units in adjusting their programs. This program has proved to be entirely sound and, in general, has worked to a marked advantage both for school officials and the Office of Defense Transportation.

- 1) *Some desirable features:* (a) Almost from the beginning has co-operated fully and worked through the United States Office of Education and an educational advisory committee in establishing policies and procedures affecting school transportation; (b) has recognized the fact that states should assume the responsibility for co-operating with local school units in planning needed reorganization; and (c) has attempted to co-operate fully with and give complete support to state and local school authorities in carrying out carefully outlined and announced policies.
- 2) *Some undesirable features:* Relatively few in number. In some cases, regional and local officials have not fully understood the program and have confused matters somewhat, but in general have sought to co-operate fully.

3. Conclusions

It will be noted that each noneducational federal agency has followed a somewhat different pattern from the others in dealing with the schools. Only a few such agencies have attempted to observe sound principles of relationships. Very few seem to have learned from the mistakes of others. Most agencies have sought to use their own personnel in servicing the

local schools and have tended largely to ignore both the United States Office of Education and the state departments of education. As long as federal noneducational agencies follow these tendencies, there is bound to be confusion and misunderstanding. If more federal agencies could study the procedures observed by the Office of Defense Transportation and would develop co-operative programs of working relationships along the lines of those developed by that Office, the situation would be greatly improved.

If the present unsatisfactory situation involving federal relations to education is to be improved, it is obvious that the following principles should be carefully observed by all agencies:

- 1) *Local school systems, institutions of higher learning, and state departments of education must co-operate in seeing that the United States Office of Education is placed in position to render the services it should render.* This means that state and local school officials should neither practice nor condone policies that tend to weaken the Office. Instead, they should urge that its appropriation be adequate to provide the personnel and services needed, that the best persons available be selected for the office staff, that the Office be organized to render efficiently the maximum services possible and that it be given a position of greater prestige in the government. This may mean establishing the Office as a department of government with a secretary in the Cabinet of the President, as suggested by one of the national advisory committees on education; or, perhaps better still, establishing the Office as a semi-independent agency, under a representative board of education which will determine policies and be in position to ascertain and support the needs of the Office and of education in general.
- 2) *Federal noneducational agencies which have interests in the field of education should be required to work through the United States Office of Education on all matters involving educational services for the state and local school systems.* Instead of attempting to render directly through their organization the educational services which are needed, they should see that adequate funds and personnel are provided for the Office of Education to perform these services. This policy has been followed satisfactorily by the Office of Defense Transportation which transferred sufficient funds to the United States Office of Education to permit that office to provide the consultants needed to assist state departments of education in working out their programs.
- 3) *State and local school officials should insist that all federal agencies concerned with education work directly with and through the state departments of education rather than with local school units.* States can assume the responsibility for clearing the matters involving local school units for federal agencies if they are given an opportunity. This was demonstrated by the experience of the Office of Defense Transportation and can be further substantiated when other agencies are willing to adopt the same policy.
- 4) *To assist in avoiding further confusion the Federal Government should clearly*

define its policies relating to education, and should then consistently follow recognized policies. Many of the present difficulties arise from the fact that the federal policies involving relationships with education have never been specifically defined. Congress has sometimes acted in accordance with one policy and a little later has seemed to recognize a totally different policy as a basis for its decision. Each federal agency tends to develop its own set of policies with the result that relations at the present time are little short of chaotic. The schools do not know what to expect, and are constantly confronted with some new and irregular type of relationship which makes a consistent and properly planned program almost impossible.

- 5) *As a means of avoiding undesirable indirect federal control over various aspects of education, all new federal appropriations for education should be made available to the states for the support of state programs of education without restrictions or specifications in terms of curricular areas to be developed.* Experience has shown that undesirable federal controls cannot be avoided as long as appropriations are made to noneducational agencies which have very broad authority to use the funds for educational purposes without regard to state plans or needs, or when appropriations are made only for the benefit of certain aspects of the school curriculum. When the plan of apportionment is written into the law, with the funds required to be channeled through the regularly established educational agencies, as indicated above, many of these difficulties can be avoided.
- 6) *There is urgent need for all educational groups to collaborate at an early date in preparing a statement of guiding principles which can safely be followed by the Federal Government in planning programs involving its relationships to education.* At the present time, there is no such statement which is recognized as having universal acceptance among educators. In fact the obvious lack of unity among national educational groups and leaders has contributed greatly to the indecisions or wrong decisions of Congress and has opened the way for many of the undesirable federal controls which have developed. If such a statement could be prepared and accepted, Congress and all federal agencies would probably tend to follow the basic principles which are proposed and many of the present difficulties could be avoided.

V. RELATIONSHIPS OF EDUCATION TO THE INTERNATIONAL SCENE

Education occupies a somewhat unique position in the international scene. It may be used to prepare a people for peace or for war. Education, in fact, may be fully as significant as diplomacy in determining whether the world may be at peace or at war.

Over the period of a generation or of a few generations the people of any nation can be taught to think of themselves as members of a family of nations whose duty it is to collaborate in developing a better civilization for all nations. On the other hand, they may learn to think of themselves as a race of supermen destined to rule the world through force if necessary.

Education has in the past, and may again in the future, serve as a significant instrument of national policy.

Even in America there are many people who are not yet ready to face this problem realistically. They have taken the position that what happens to education in other countries is no concern of ours and what we do with education in this country is no concern of the people of England, Germany, or of any other country. Yet it should be a matter of vital concern for it may determine whether we have opportunity to participate in an enduring peace or must send our young people into a destructive war again within a few years.

It is significant that this problem has been given increasing attention during recent years. Among the important recent reports by groups interested in education are *Education and the People's Peace*¹⁸ and *Education for International Security*.¹⁹ The fact that such forward looking reports are being prepared and discussed at this time does not mean that the problem is solved. In fact, from a realistic point of view, it must be admitted that only a limited beginning has been made. However, it is evident that more people than ever before are beginning to realize the importance of working out some solution to such a vital problem. If this trend continues, considerable progress may be expected during the next few years.

1. Importance of an International Organization on Educational Policy

If the matter of educational policy continues as a concern primarily of each nation, the seeds of future wars are likely to be sowed in the minds of the younger generation in many nations even during the period when most nations think they are preparing for peace. Some international organization which will be concerned with educational policy seems essential. Such an organization should not be established to control educational policy, but rather to study developments and to let the world know what is occurring. Educational developments can be analyzed in terms of their contribution to the promotion of better international understanding and good will. The results of such analyses should be of tremendous concern to all peoples.

2. Preliminary Organization for International Co-operation

At the present time the establishment of a permanent organization for educational co-operation would apparently not be practicable. The

¹⁸ Educational Policies Commission, *Education and the People's Peace*. Washington: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, 1943.

¹⁹ Liaison Committee for International Education, Harpers Ferry Meeting, September, 1943.

world is still at war and for some years after the war the Axis nations probably would not be in position to collaborate fully in such a project. In fact, the problems involving the Axis nations at this time are such that major decisions relating to the educational policies in those nations immediately following the war should be made by the governments of the United Nations.

It seems obvious that the Axis nations should not be permitted to continue their present war-fostering educational programs. It is to the interest of all nations that these educational policies be changed as a part of the peace program. It is likewise to the interest of everyone concerned that the military authorities not be permitted to determine the peacetime educational policies or program for any nation. That is basically a civilian rather than a military responsibility.

The Educational Policies Commission has recommended that in the United States the organized teaching profession take the initiative in developing plans and that a temporary International Conference of representatives of education be organized.²⁰ Such a plan would at least assure that the educational rather than the military, economic, or some other point of view would predominate. Thorough study and careful planning by educational leaders is of greatest importance. It is also important, as far as this country is concerned, that the solution not be undertaken by any one department of the Federal Government which is not primarily concerned with education—that is, for example, by the Department of Commerce or Department of State—without reference to or representation from the United States Office of Education. A plan for developing an organization which would assure representation from educational groups and in addition would provide for adequate representation from other departments or agencies concerned, such as the Department of State, would seem to be highly desirable. Such a temporary organization would have as its chief functions the development of plans for a nonmilitaristic educational program for the axis nations and the preparation of preliminary plans for the establishment of a permanent organization as soon as practicable.

Significant progress toward the establishment of this proposed organization was apparently made by the Conference of Allied Ministers of Education which was held in London during the spring of 1944. The American delegation, which included the United States Commissioner of Education, collaborated with the conference in (1) drafting a tentative plan for a *United Nations Organization for Educational and Cultural Reconstruction* and (2) ascertaining the essential emergency needs of the war-

²⁰ *Education and the People's Peace*, op. cit., p. 25.

devastated allied countries with respect to educational services. Significant excerpts from the memorandum issued by the Conference Secretariat are given below:

The need for the proposed organization is stated in the Preamble of the proposed Constitution which says in part, "To deprive any part of the interdependent modern world of the cultural resources, human and material, through which its children are trained and its people informed, is to destroy to that extent the common knowledge and the mutual understanding upon which the peace of the world and its security must rest."

The text of the tentative draft Constitution consists of seven sections. The first contains a statement of the underlying reasons why international co-operation in educational reconstruction should be attempted.

The second defines the functions of the projected organization in terms which should permit it to work effectively in the fields of educational and cultural rehabilitation and reconstruction and to develop ultimately into a permanent body with broader activities.

Section three declares that membership shall be open to all the United Nations and Associated Nations and to such other nations as shall be accepted by the Assembly, upon application thereto, after the cessation of hostilities with the Axis.

Section four, which lists the agencies of the proposed organization, provides for an Assembly with equal representation and votes for all member states, an executive board to be elected by the Assembly and an international secretariat.

The fifth, or financial section, states that administrative expenses shall be shared by the member nations on a basis to be agreed by the Assembly. It also provides for the creation of an emergency rehabilitation fund controlled by an emergency rehabilitation fund committee. . . .

Section six contains provisions relating to ratification, amendment, and interpretation which follow closely those in the statutes of other international bodies.

Section seven contains provisions requiring member nations to supply information about education and cultural matters, defining the legal status of the organization and its staff, providing for co-operation between the organization and existing international organizations in the educational and cultural fields and governing the relationship of the organization to any agency for co-ordinating public international organizations.²¹

3. Permanent International Office of Education

There is some precedent for a permanent international organization which would be concerned with education, cultural affairs, and intellectual co-operation. In 1922 the League of Nations created a Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and a few years later an International Bureau of Education was established with headquarters at Geneva. These or-

²¹ As quoted in *Education for Victory*, II (May 20, 1944), 2.

ganizations, however, did not have the funds, did not have the prestige or the backing of many important nations, including the United States, and consequently did little more than demonstrate the possibility of and need for international intellectual co-operation.

A permanent international office, when organized, should have representation from every nation. The International Educational Assembly proposed equal representation.²² This organization also proposed a list of sixteen responsibilities with chief emphasis placed on studies of educational developments and stimulation of projects involving educational and intellectual co-operation. One of the greatest values would undoubtedly come from the publication and dissemination of studies which would interpret significant educational developments in each country—particularly those tendencies which tend to promote or to destroy international understanding and good will.

The International Labor Office affords an excellent illustration of the possibilities and advantages of international co-operation in one important field. The values in the field of education should be fully as great. Most nations now realize, as never before, the dangers confronting the world from failure to face realistically the implications of education for war—or for peace.

Adequate financial support as well as enlightened government backing for an international office for educational policy and intellectual co-operation would be essential and would pay substantial dividends. A small fraction of the amount the nations now have to spend on war, as a result of past failures, should be enough to assure adequate support—and to help to avoid future wars. A properly organized and well-supported international educational organization, therefore, should be considered an essential phase of any plan for peace which comes out of this war.

²² *Education for International Security*, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

CHAPTER VI

RELATIONSHIPS OF THE SCHOOLS TO OTHER SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

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The reconstruction of the educational program in terms of changing curricular emphases and new groups to be served brings into focus the relationships of the schools to other agencies rendering educational and social services. The school program should certainly be broadened in the effort to provide effective education for all people; this is an imperative in postwar planning at all educational levels. In the consideration of needed adjustments in the organization of the schools to meet these new demands, the rapid development of public and private enterprises designed to promote the general welfare of our population must be taken into account.

The need for co-operative planning for the development and use of community resources has been intensified because of the war. The social disintegration in many war centers has spotlighted the lack of well-organized services for children and the importance of developing community-centered programs without delay. Several communities have demonstrated that the protection of childhood can be secured by the rapid co-ordination of public and private agencies working on behalf of children. Cleveland, for example, has attacked the important problem of child protection through neighborhood groups with new programs centered in the school. Wichita, Kansas, is another example of community activity, especially in the area of public health and medical services. A concerted program developed by the school and other agencies in the community has been put into effect in Orange, Texas, to meet the problems of the trailer population. St. Paul, Minnesota, has maintained a co-ordinating center for community services for children. Kansas City, Missouri, and Houston, Texas, have been working to prevent juvenile delinquency by uniting the efforts of the schools, the police, and the social agencies. The initiative in many cases has come from the schools, but sometimes public or private welfare groups have originated the planning.

I. SERVICES TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN WHICH ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS ARE DESIRABLE

Prominent among the services in which schools share some responsibility with other community agencies are those pertaining to health, recreation, safety, employment, welfare, correction, and those performed by such cultural institutions as libraries, art institutes, and museums. These services usually aim to supplement or extend the school program, contribute to child growth and development, offer life enrichment activities, deal with adjustment and protection, or help the child to take advantage of his educational opportunities through the removal of handicaps. Some of the agencies responsible for these services are more closely related to schools than others, for example, libraries and recreation centers. The social welfare services are those rendered by public health and welfare departments, public employment agencies, and the courts, as well as by such private agencies as are concerned with social welfare. Any service to childhood or youth, public or private, must be taken into account in planning postwar educational programs.

1. Similarities and Differences in Purpose and Function

The discovery of similarities and differences in purpose and function is one of the first steps in developing collaboration of effort on the part of the various agencies providing specialized services to children and adults. In the first place, the effectiveness of all other social institutions and agencies depends upon the services performed by the schools. Education nourishes and sustains these other services and furnishes the science and knowledge upon which they rely. Moreover, it performs the unique function of introducing each new generation to the heritage of the past and of inspiring it to produce new chapters in the story of human progress. To that end our American schools seek to promote self-realization and to educate in human relationships, for economic efficiency, and for civic responsibility. They teach the ways of democracy and the knowledge, loyalties, and discipline of free people. Since the aim of American education is an enlightened citizenry, school attendance is compulsory for normal children within appropriate age limits.¹

The basic purposes of libraries, museums, art galleries, and recreation centers are in many respects identical with those of education. Their services are closely related to schools in that they advance public enlightenment and cultural standards, promote life enrichment activities,

¹ *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1937.

The Purposes of Education in American Democracy. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1938.

provide leisure-time enjoyment, and contribute to child growth and development. Their services differ from those of the schools in that participation is voluntary and depends upon the interests of the people and the accessibility of their facilities.

The school gives training in the skills and abilities needed for learning to read, cultivates the taste for good literature, and provides reading experiences. It develops the desire and the ability to read which constitute the admission ticket to the library. The library offers life-long opportunities for reading for all age groups, thereby re-enforcing and carrying forward the work of the school. Indeed it may be said that schools and libraries are the legs with which democracy walks.

Likewise recreation and education have reciprocal values; 'in many communities schools and public recreation departments use the same recreational facilities. It is hard to distinguish between recreation and education, but recreational activities usually occupy leisure hours. Recreation serves physical, social, and cultural needs in promoting health and efficiency, developing personality, enriching life, and providing wholesome enjoyment. The schools teach the attitudes and skills which carry over into recreational experiences and provide opportunities for these experiences in curriculum and extra-curriculum activities. The recreational agencies teach skills needed in given situations, and provide for the further enrichment of recreational experience. So they complement each other.

The close relationship between recreation and education is described in the following statement submitted by Dr. Howard Braucher:

Recreation and education are closely interrelated. Their objectives are often achieved through such similar means that it is not always possible to differentiate between them. Recreation is a part of education, as of religion, health, industry, and work. Like education and religion, it should permeate all of life.

Play activities afford a means by which the young child develops in mind and body. He acquires knowledge of himself and of his environment primarily through play which occupies most of his waking hours. Because play activities arouse and sustain the child's interest, stimulate his imagination, induce whole-hearted concentration, and yield direct satisfactions to the child, they are widely used in the schools to motivate the learning process. Recreational activities carried on outside the school can contribute directly to the school program by providing incentives for the individuals to learn more about related school subjects.

The value of athletics as a means of fostering school loyalty and of reducing discipline problems has been repeatedly demonstrated. Social recreation activities have contributed much to friendly school relationships and to the maintenance of morale among young people, especially during the present war. Extra-curriculum activities, such as school orchestras, choruses, and dramatic pro-

ductions, provide for many students one of the most enjoyable features of school life and develop interests which afford value and satisfaction in later years. Participation in adult-education programs is often prompted by the individual's desire to acquire recreational skills that can be enjoyed in his leisure hours.

Recreational activities are especially important in wartime because they contribute to physical fitness, mental alertness, and emotional stability. They afford wholesome outlets for wartime stresses and tensions. After the war, returning servicemen will want for themselves and for others a chance for comradeship, for the enjoyment of beauty, for participation in sports, for sharing in community life. Recreation can play a vital part in bringing about a more satisfying way of life for all the people.

The place of recreation in developing morale is shown by the current demand for youth recreation centers in local communities. This situation calls for constructive and co-operative action by school and recreational authorities as community leaders. It is said that Nazi children do not smile or laugh; they may illustrate the old adage that all work and no play make Jack a dull boy.²

Health and welfare services have much in common with education. They deal with areas in which co-operation is essential to the best interests of the child and the school community. By correcting remedial defects or maladjustments they often make it possible for children to take better advantage of their educational opportunities. While the work of education is largely preventive, the health and welfare programs involve corrective procedures and social adjustment.

Many of these activities are the joint concern of the schools and the welfare and health agencies—health care and hot lunches, child-labor regulations, clinics, for example. Health and welfare services are essential factors, along with libraries and recreation facilities, in the equalization of educational opportunity for all children.

It cannot be said, however, that the schools have as yet undertaken to carry their fair share of the responsibility for providing these services for all children and youth, and certainly not for adults. There is much to be done—planning adequate programs of service, developing public opinion in support of them, organizing and administering the programs and promoting their use. In the case of each service in which schools share responsibility with some other agency, there is need for determining just what the schools can appropriately do. This is frequently difficult because for so long the public has insisted that the schools' only function is to teach children the fundamentals of literacy. Today's emphasis on the total welfare of children and youth provides the opportunity for a broader interpretation of education, and the schools' responsibility for it.

² Patsy Ziemer, *Two Thousand and Ten Days of Hitler*, chap. x. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940.

2. Areas of Overlapping

From the standpoint of the public school there is a twilight zone of overlapping functions with respect to services performed by certain other agencies. While the areas of common interest are greater among the services of libraries and recreation centers than among the services of agencies concerned with health and social welfare, for example, some of the activities of all such agencies are motivated by objectives which are similar to those of the schools. The overlapping of functions is not amiss when different purposes and clientele are being served or when one service tends to give force to another. On the other hand, it is desirable that duplication of effort be minimized. The need for co-operative policies and common understandings arises when the functions of each agency are not clearly defined and definite responsibilities are not assigned. Confusion results when aggressive leadership in one area usurps functions which belong to some other area or when competition for funds for both private and public support becomes acute.

The charts on page 192 illustrate the present administration of school health and welfare authorities and indicate how improvements can be made by defining functions and responsibilities.

3. Organization of Local Education and Social Services

The public functions under consideration are carried on at federal, state, and local governmental levels and their relationships are important at each. No uniform pattern exists for administering education and the social services. Previous chapters have indicated the variation in structure under which public education is carried forward. This situation is equally characteristic of other social services. Sometimes they are organized on a county or regional basis, sometimes as purely local district or city administrations. There is nothing inherent in the structural organization of the public educational program and the social services which either promotes or prevents the development of co-operative relationships, but the variation in the organization of both presents additional problems in working out relationships. Illustrations of the variety of plans of organization for administering social services follow.

The organization of the schools, encompassing a substantial proportion of children and youth, provides an opportunity for each of the other agencies to discharge its primary responsibilities more effectively where co-operative relationships are established. The school, in turn, should co-operate with other services in order that its primary responsibilities may be more effectively discharged.

II. CURRENT ORGANIZATION PATTERNS

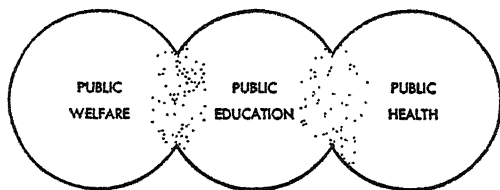
The problems involved in providing specialized services for children and in developing operating relationships between schools and other

agencies offering educational, health, or social services are being approached in various ways. A particular service may in some instances be furnished by the school itself and carried out by school personnel under the jurisdiction of the board of education. Again, as part of the school program, it may be supplied by an agency other than the school or furnished as a part of an over-all community program. In other communities it may be developed through co-operative arrangements of the school

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL, HEALTH, AND WELFARE AUTHORITIES³

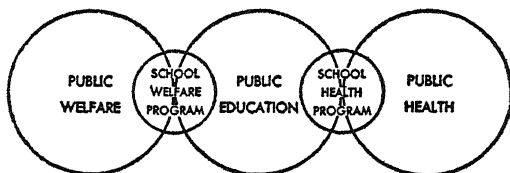
PRESENT TYPICAL SITUATION

Lack of clearly defined responsibilities permits existence of inferior or duplicated services or of a no-man's-land of neglected needs.



A MORE DESIRABLE SITUATION

Clear demarcation of functions between related services permits fixing responsibility and cooperation in meeting all needs.



with other groups. The following examples of these plans are drawn from the fields of health, library service, recreation, safety, and juvenile protection.

a. Health Services. School health services are usually supplied by physicians and nurses employed by the board of education. Programs which function under school board auspices are typified by the practice in Des Moines, Iowa. Two areas of health work are promoted in the Des Moines plan which has been in operation for 24 years: the protection of children

³ Reproduced from *Social Services and the Schools*, p. 66. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1939.

assembled in groups throughout the schools of the city; and the education of these same children in health matters. In recent years the services have been increased and co-ordinated under the supervision of a part-time medical director to include the physical education and coaching personnel, as well as the nurses, dental hygienists, and school physicians. The activities include conferences with the administrative staff of the schools; co-operation with principals, teachers, and custodial force; recommendations of personnel for the school health department; and responsibility for the appraisal of health records of all applicants for school positions and the health statistics of new employees, and the frequent physical examinations of all regular employees.⁴

Other examples of well-designed school health-service programs functioning under the direction of the board of education have been noted in the following cities: Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; Hartford, Connecticut; Schenectady, New York; Providence, Rhode Island; Tacoma, Washington; Decatur, Evanston, and La Salle, Illinois; Pasadena and San José, California; Charleston, South Carolina; and Birmingham-Jefferson County, Alabama.

Another pattern of organization is that in which the municipal health department conducts the health-service activities in the public and parochial schools as a part of a co-operative and unified health program for the community. Illustrative of this practice are plans in operation in New York City; Milwaukee, Madison, Racine, and Green Bay, Wisconsin; Greensboro, North Carolina; Jackson, Michigan; Rochester, Minnesota; Louisville-Jefferson County, Kentucky; Jackson County, Oregon, and Memphis-Shelby County and Chattanooga-Hamilton County, Tennessee.

The relationship in Topeka, Kansas, is interesting from the standpoint that a number of changes have taken place there in recent years. These include a combined city-county health department, the nurses formerly with the board of education now being assigned to the department of public health. A very close relationship has been worked out between the Visiting Nurse Association and the health department. These combined features make it possible to have a generalized nursing program for the community.

The tendency to co-ordinate school and public health-education programs through co-ordinated community planning is increasing under the

⁴ Fred Moore and J. W. Studebaker, *Organization and Administration of School Health*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 12, 1939. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

Gertrude E. Cromwell, "Des Moines School Health Program." Unpublished. Des Moines, Iowa: Board of Education, 629 Third Street.

initiative of school systems or health departments. The co-ordination is developed in different ways, as exemplified by programs in Bulloch County, Georgia; Appomattox and Rockridge Counties, Virginia; Santa Barbara and San Joaquin local health districts in California; Jefferson County, Alabama; Calhoun County, Michigan; Cottage Grove and Eugene, Oregon; Washington County, Tennessee; and Hartford, Connecticut. In the latter city, medical and nursing services are provided for the schools by school authorities and a community-wide program of health has been put into effect under the joint sponsorship of twenty-one agencies. Many of the larger cities, Cleveland, for example, have found community councils to be helpful in promoting better understandings and relationships among the agencies engaged in school and community health work. Joint programs for community organization on the state level have been developed in Tennessee and Oregon through policies of co-operation of state departments of education, state departments of health, and institutions of higher learning. Consultative services in health education are provided local districts in several states through state departments of health.⁵

The state department of public instruction in Michigan is sponsoring a community health-service project. One hundred fifty schools are participating; about one-fourth of this number are providing hospital experiences for students, while the other three-fourths are experimenting with functional experiences in nursing schools and home activities in co-operation with local health departments and child-care agencies. They are also participating in the health-appraisal program within the school itself, particularly as this program relates to the kindergarten and early elementary grades.⁶

Relationships with national agencies are also in the picture, due to the increasing activity on the part of the Federal Government and of private national organizations in the field of health. Nearly a hundred of these have been listed in the Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Federal agencies maintaining health-education programs or health services are the United States Office of Education, United States Public Health Service, and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor. Representative professional organizations having materials and services for use in health education and other health fields are the American Medical Association, the American Dental Association,

⁵ C. E. Turner, *Community Organization for Health Education*. Report of the Committee of the American Public Health Association. New York: American Public Health Association, 1941.

⁶ *Leads to Community Health*. Michigan Department of Public Instruction Bulletin No. 328. Lansing: Michigan Department of Public Instruction, 1943.

the American Public Health Association, National Tuberculosis Association, American Red Cross, and American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.⁷

In meeting its responsibility for the health of the pupil, the school has found that the school's relationship to other agencies in the community is most important. Dr. C. E. Turner, Professor of Public Health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has this to say on that point:

We have learned that direct health instruction in school is of slight value unless it is supported, instead of contradicted, by healthful living at school, in the home, and in the community. Health is a community problem. In a democracy we can only hope for the best results when the public is interested in its own health. Hygienic living will be general and effective only in those communities where co-operation between the school system, the health department, and the voluntary agencies has made health a part of basic education and a part of community thinking. An initial responsibility rests on the school superintendent and the local health officer for developing adequate community organization for health education.

The relationship of schools to health agencies has been analyzed by John L. Bracken, Superintendent of Schools, Clayton, Missouri, in the following statement:

The health of American communities now and the health of the next generations, as well, depend to a large degree upon the co-ordination of school and other health agencies. The school cannot assume full responsibility for community health, yet the school has a high stake in the health of the community. The general community has a prime concern in the health conditions and in the health developments of the school, without being in a position to assume responsibility for details and extended programs, particularly in instructional areas.

The most effective relationship of schools and health agencies is that of co-operation rather than unification. Effective integration of programs is possible without impairing the autonomy of either health agencies or school organizations. With the scope of each organization's activities clearly charted and with each organization retaining administrative control of its own activities, successful joint programs utilize the democratic process of group thinking and planning without conforming to any set pattern of integrating organization. The type of co-operation is immaterial, if it is effective; the important consideration is for the co-operation to be initiated and carried through.

Health and physical fitness come in for special attention in time of war; the impetus of wartime thinking can be carried beyond the period of hostilities into the productive realm of peace. New medical theories are proved in practice.

⁷ *Health in the Schools*, chap. xv and appendix. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1942.

Community Organization for Physical Fitness. Washington: Committee on Physical Fitness, Federal Security Agency.

New and highly effective curative agents come into being. Techniques are improved. Popular interest and understanding are quickened. At the same time, new hazards develop, ranging from diseases brought back from the ends of the earth to hypertensions in nervous systems of overwrought stay-at-homes. The wastage and the backwash of war must be overcome through the co-operation of all health agencies, determined to bring into reciprocating balance the curative and developmental powers of a community which already is aroused.

There is primacy even in co-operation. Projects must be initiated and plans must be followed through. Rough corners must be rounded or ignored, and tactful leadership is at a premium. Without integration of co-operative efforts, the health of our communities and the vigor of our younger generation will lay an insecure foundation for a brave new world. The schools should make it their task to see that co-operation is established, that communities are organized, and that the facilities of the schools form an integral part of the cohesive force which permits all of the people to grow in health, in understanding, and in ways of living together.

b. Library Service. The school library is an integral part of the instructional program of the schools. It is so essential to the work of the school that it cannot be set apart as an additional or supplementary service. For that reason the responsibility for providing school library service and the effectiveness with which it is done rests upon the board of education. That responsibility may be met in different ways: the board may organize and maintain school libraries or it may delegate this function to the public library.

Patterns and descriptions of working relationships between schools and public libraries in ten selected communities are described in the bulletin, *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*,⁸ prepared by the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association. Madison, Wisconsin, is given as an example of a community in which the entire school library program is provided by the public library. Scotia, New York, is given as an example of a community in which the entire school library program is maintained by the board of education. Different co-operative arrangements are illustrated by the practices in Cleveland Heights, Ohio; Cass County, Indiana; Hunterdon County, New Jersey; Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; Faribault, Minnesota; Beatrice, Nebraska; Albany, New York; and Long Beach, California.

By far the majority of the school systems which have library service provide it themselves as an integral part of the instructional program. The term "library" has several different connotations in the minds of

⁸ *Schools and Libraries Working Together*. Joint Report of the National Education Association and the American Library Association. Washington: National Education Association, 1940.

teachers and school administrators. In some places it is thought of as a "book service," or a source of instructional supplies available to the class and the teacher. In other schools, the library is a place of study, for reference work. In still others, library service includes not only the generous provision of instructional materials but guidance in their use as well. When a school holds to this last interpretation, it is apt to organize school library service as an integral part of classroom service, as much a part of the school as is any other phase of instruction.

A second phase of the problem of providing library service is that of appropriate relationships between schools and public libraries in the same community. It has frequently been emphasized that libraries are as much "educational agencies" as are the schools. In some communities, Kansas City, Missouri, Indianapolis, Indiana, and Kalamazoo and Flint, Michigan, for example, this point of view has found expression in the assignment to the boards of education of responsibility for libraries as well as for schools. The pros and cons of this arrangement have often been discussed.⁹ Certainly the arguments commonly made for independent, nonpolitical boards for the control of schools, for the separateness of schools from other functions of municipal government, have some force in the case of libraries, whose purpose also is the cultivation and freedom of the people's minds. Furthermore, as schools undertake to carry out more effectively their responsibility to the adult population, there will be even less reason than now exists for the continuance of these, and other, educational and cultural agencies in a community as separately administered and sometimes competing services.

Criteria for judging relationships between public schools and public libraries have been outlined by John H. Herrick, Director of Research, Cincinnati Public Schools, as follows:

Schools and libraries are two co-ordinate agencies charged with responsibility for public education, and it is to be expected that they will co-operate in many ways. Any co-operative relationship between them should be judged in the light of two principles, as follows:

- 1) The relationship should be consistent with principles of sound public administration.
- 2) The relationship should promote the best service of the total educational needs of the entire community.

A proper co-operative arrangement can prevent much waste, especially in the small community which does not need and cannot afford duplication of titles in the public and school libraries, or duplication of personnel to do the technical library work of the two agencies. Housing, too, is a great expense in the small community where the library is open but a few hours of the week and the school

⁹ *Social Services and the Schools, op. cit.*

stands idle much of the year. An arrangement for housing the public library in the school building, with adequate safeguards to the interests of the library, would often be sound public administration. Any agreement involving shared responsibility should make clear the division of responsibility and the lines of authority, lest the effectiveness of the arrangement be marred by uncertainties and misunderstandings.

c. Recreation. The administration of public recreation is usually vested in the board of education, the park authorities, or a separate commission created for that purpose. Data pertaining to the administration of community recreation programs for the year 1942 indicated that of 1,023 governmental agencies reporting, 330 were separate recreation boards or departments; 332 were park boards; 153 were school boards or departments; and 208 were other municipal boards or agencies. Of the 346 agencies reporting at least one worker employed for recreation on a full-time year-round basis, 199, or nearly 60 per cent of the total, were recreation commissions, boards, or departments of the municipal government. In contrast, only twenty-one school authorities¹⁰ maintained such full-time service.

School properties in cities are widely used for community as well as for school recreation purposes. The nature and scope of these programs vary. Three methods are prominent for rendering community recreation services through the schools. These include: the administration of the service under the auspices of the board of education; situations where the schools permit another agency to conduct the recreational activities; and co-operative plans involving the participation of both schools and other community agencies.

Milwaukee and Newark are examples of cities conducting recreation programs under school board control. In Milwaukee the Department of Municipal Recreation and Adult Education is an administrative division of the local school system. It is financed by a special school millage levy. The programs are carried on in the school buildings and on school areas as well as on municipally owned properties. In addition to its playgrounds and centers, the department directs a city-wide municipal sports program. Examples of smaller communities in which the recreation programs are operated by the school boards include Ferndale and Hamtramck, Michigan; Cleveland Heights and Lakewood, Ohio; Madison and Kenosha, Wisconsin; and Sioux City, Iowa.

A second type of organization exists in cities where the school authorities permit another agency to conduct activities on school property. In

¹⁰ *Recreation, Yearbook, 1943*, pp. 123-24. New York: Recreation (315 Fourth Avenue), 1943.

such cases the expenses of leadership and other items are usually borne by the nonschool agency. The school authorities set forth the conditions and regulations for the use of school property; their responsibility is limited largely to making school facilities available. In Davenport, Iowa, the recreation program is a part of the park service, which uses the school facilities. Baltimore, Maryland; Detroit, Michigan; Alton and Decatur, Illinois; Plainfield and Montclair, New Jersey; Utica and Mt. Vernon, New York; and Hartford and West Hartford, Connecticut, are examples of cities in which community recreation programs are conducted in school buildings and on school grounds by municipal recreation authorities.

A third type of organization is found in cities in which school authorities co-operate with nonschool agencies in providing recreation services. In such cases the nature and extent of the responsibilities shared by the groups vary, but the program is generally developed on a co-operative basis and the expenses are shared. Washington, D.C., is an example of a city in which such co-operation exists. A board of recreation has been established consisting of seven members, one of whom represents the board of education. Thus the school board has a share in determining the policies of the recreation board, which operates recreation centers in a number of school buildings and conducts outdoor recreation programs on school properties. The school does not furnish funds or leadership for the recreation program, but a high degree of co-operation prevails between school and recreation authorities.

A co-operative program between school and municipal authorities has been carried out in Oakland, California, since 1909. A new agreement was worked out in 1943 under which the public schools assumed responsibility for the public recreation program on the secondary level in the city's high and junior high schools as well as for all the night recreation activities in the school buildings. The city recreation department is to carry on the recreation program on all municipal properties and to direct and pay for the leadership and meet the expense of operating all the elementary-school playgrounds. The costs are shared and the school board has combined its recreation program with that of its physical education department under a supervisor employed for twelve months of the year.

Other cities with co-operative recreation plans involving school and nonschool participation are Long Beach, California; Glencoe, Illinois; Kalamazoo, Michigan; and Akron, Ohio. In Des Moines and Cedar Rapids, Iowa, public recreation functions under the community recreation commission plan.

The trends over a period of years have indicated a tendency to establish recreation departments chiefly under a recreation board or commission. In most cases the schools co-operate in the planning and ad-

ministration through membership on the board. They often make available school areas and facilities for community recreation use, but in most cities the school authorities do not contribute funds to the recreation department or share directly in the administration.

In recent years the Federal Government has interested itself in the problem of stimulating and assisting local communities to develop recreational services, at first through the Work Projects Administration and more recently through the Federal Works Agency. This latter agency has made grants to numerous war areas for recreation provisions. Notable among these, so far as schools are concerned, is the Extended School Services program, developed by the United States Office of Education, for which Federal Works Agency funds are granted to schools for educational and recreational activities for the children of employed mothers. These programs, operated by the schools before and after the school day, on Saturdays and holidays, and during summer vacations, have reached more than fifty thousand children. In many communities which had no organized recreation program for children, these programs have demonstrated very practical ways for schools to provide such services with school facilities and with a nucleus of school staff.

Similarly grants have been made for public recreation in war areas; these grants together with the services of field representatives of the Division of Recreation of the Federal Security Agency have encouraged the development of public recreation commissions, both locally and at the state level.

It is obvious that schools are inevitably concerned in this problem of developing community recreation programs. The purposes of education and recreation are intertwined. There is a very fine line indeed between the opportunities provided in a comprehensive adult-education program and those provided in recreation. As both become better it will be increasingly difficult to differentiate between them. The question arises as to why a community should try to make any distinction between them. Similarly, the question of facilities brings up the matter of dual use. School buildings which are modern and which were planned for good education programs have many of the facilities needed for a recreation program. Again the community may well ask itself why this should not be so. Particularly in small communities, there seem to be distinct advantages in a single administration. Certain it is that in the years ahead as communities plan to serve more adequately the leisure-time needs of all their citizens—children, youth, and adults—and as they try to capitalize on the lessons learned in wartime in providing recreation, there will be great need for schools to pool their experience and their resources with those of other community agencies.

d. Safety Education. Safety is another area which involves direct relationships with other governmental and private agencies. Whether it is integrated with the other school subjects or introduced as a separate course, safety education is accepted as an important responsibility in most school systems. Baltimore, Minneapolis, Kansas City, Worcester, and the state of Massachusetts are examples of the correlation plan. Illustrative of the organization of the course of study for safety education as a separate subject are those in the states of Kansas, Louisiana, and South Dakota, and in the cities of Philadelphia, Waterbury, Vincennes, New Orleans, and Cincinnati. Other selected examples of school systems with systematic safety programs are Louisville, Green Bay, East Orange, Wilmington, Saginaw, Evanston Township High School, Pittsburgh, and Kansas City.¹¹

The need for co-ordinating safety programs arises from the large number of public and private agencies active in this area on local, state, and national levels. The very nature of safety education should encourage school and community co-operation. Many branches of city and county government are concerned—such as courts, fire, police, public works, parks, and recreation departments, as well as schools. Comparable state agencies are the state health department, state police patrol, motor vehicle and highway departments, state departments of education, and others, with their counterparts in the Federal Government in the United States Office of Education, United States Public Health Service, Public Roads Administration, and others. Among the most prominent national lay organizations concerned with safety education are the National Safety Council, the National Conservation Bureau, and the American Automobile Association.

Local safety councils provide channels for the co-ordination of safety-education programs. Milwaukee, Kansas City, Erie, Allentown, Lehigh Valley, Waukegan, Providence, Rochester, Dallas, Trenton, Saginaw, Omaha, and Syracuse are examples of communities which have such councils.

Although the pioneering work in safety education has been done largely by nonschool agencies, it is now time for the schools to prepare for leadership in this field to the end that functioning programs may reach every school child. Many educators feel that safety education has reached the place in its development where it should be given full recognition as a curriculum subject; that it is no longer an appendage to some traditional course, nor another extra-curriculum activity. Francis L.

¹¹ *Safety Education*, pp. 69, 83. Eighteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, National Education Association, 1940.

Bacon, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, says:

The engineering profession, the public enforcement officers, the civic leaders, and the organizations especially associated with accident prevention all agree that the one fundamental is an educational program, and that this program is basically a concern of the public schools. Therefore, school administrators and teachers should take the lead in developing helpful relationships with all of the outside agencies which are concerned with accident prevention.

Certainly, state departments of education, boards of education, and school officers and teachers should determine the place, the time, and the character to be given to safety education in the public schools. All nonschool agencies should be carefully concerned with relating their general programs and activities to the public schools as purely advisory services. Schools should be particularly alert to seek and to make extensive use of such services as nonschool agencies can properly give.

e. Prevention and Control of Juvenile Delinquency. The alarming increase in juvenile delinquency since this nation became involved in the war calls for co-ordinated action on the part of all agencies concerned with the welfare of children. Some form of community organization in each locality is necessary in order to eliminate duplication of effort, fill the gaps in essential services, and make the best possible use of available resources. Whether it is a co-ordinating council, a youth guidance commission, or a special bureau, the community approach is needed to organize a program to prevent and control delinquency and to put such a program into operation.

Some of the effects of war on youthful behavior and on parents, homes, and community services, as evidenced by observations in ten selected cities, are described in the March, 1944, issue of *Survey*. In the same article a community plan for the discovery, diagnosis, and treatment of delinquent behavior is outlined. Recent bulletins on the subject published by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor and the United States Office of Education emphasize the importance of co-ordinated community effort to control delinquency and describe methods of utilizing the services of state and federal agencies as well as of private organizations.¹²

¹² "Juvenile Delinquency: A Challenge to Concerted Action Now and After the War," *Survey*, LXXX (March, 1944), 68-95.

Understanding Juvenile Delinquency: Controlling Juvenile Delinquency. Children's Bureau, Department of Labor, Publication No. 300. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools in Wartime. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 8, 1943. School Children and the War Series. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

In 1931 the Jersey City Board of Education established a co-ordinated child welfare unit known as the Bureau of Special Service. The original purpose of this bureau was to handle all cases of juvenile delinquency within the school system. The scope of the work was soon extended to include all juvenile delinquency within the city and an organization designed to co-ordinate the efforts of all public agencies was set up to handle cases of maladjustment found by either school authorities or police officials. The functioning of that plan has been described by Superintendent James A. Nugent of the Jersey City school system in these words:

Under this arrangement it is not possible for any child to become involved in serious difficulty with the school authorities or the law without having a thorough investigation made of the home, school, and leisure-hour activities as well as of his physical, mental, and emotional condition in order to determine the factors which are shaping his career in an antisocial direction.

Further, no child is permitted to be taken into a police station, or courtroom, or institution until after he seems to have become a chronic offender and a menace to the other children in his neighborhood. Conferences in the Bureau are held with parents and children during which the responsibility for the proper conduct of the child is emphasized in the minds of parent and child. Where parents fail to realize their duty, any charges to be preferred are preferred against the parents under the Child Welfare Act of the state of New Jersey.

The purpose of this entire program in the case of maladjustment is to find definite causal factors of a physical, mental, or environmental nature which should be recognized and carefully considered before the child is institutionalized or held responsible in any other manner.

This illustration, unique as it is, brings out the kinds of facilities which are needed and the degree of integration of services desirable if each case of juvenile delinquency or incipient antisocial behavior is to be treated as a unit. In pooling their resources to combat juvenile delinquency, communities will need to keep their attention on this major purpose, dealing with each child and his family as an individual case.

f. Co-ordinating Councils as an Evolving Pattern of School-Community Co-operation. The community council appears to be the evolving pattern for securing co-ordinated effort among organizations engaged in providing specialized services for children and youth. It is intended to identify common problems, prevent overlapping of functions, bridge gaps in the services, increase the efficiency of the participating groups by defining responsibilities, develop closer co-operation, and make better utilization of available resources.

Educators are frequently the logical and strategic leaders to furnish the stimulus and take the initiative in establishing co-ordinating councils. The children reap the benefits when co-ordinated efforts in their behalf replace unrelated programs. Public funds are used to better advantage.

The need for professional leadership in this direction can hardly be overstated in view of the issues involved in war and postwar problems in education.

The Berkeley Co-ordinating Council, one of the first to be formed, has been in continuous operation since 1919. It was initiated through weekly meetings held by the Chief of Police and the Director of Research and Guidance in the Berkeley schools for consultation about problem cases in which both were involved. These officials soon discovered other governmental groups often working with the same families and children. The result was that five tax-supported community agencies—police, schools, health department, welfare agency, and recreation department—formed a co-ordinating council for co-operation in welfare work.

This council serves in an advisory capacity and exercises no executive authority whatever. It serves to identify existing needs and gather facts about them, to investigate cases and conditions, and to plan solutions to specific problems. Its chief value lies in the opportunity it provides for various officials to confer on matters of common interest. After deliberation, preventive and remedial measures are outlined and assigned to an agency in the community capable of assuming responsibility for the work to be done. Follow-up studies are made. Representatives of youth-serving groups and other organizations interested in the problems under discussion are often called into the conferences.

In 1929 the Berkeley Co-ordinating Council came to the attention of the California Commission for the Study of Problem Children. This commission deemed it desirable that a co-ordinator familiar with the Berkeley plan be appointed to visit local communities upon request to introduce the system or some modification of it. The result was the rapid spread of the co-ordinating plan in the state and nation. In 1931 the probation officer of Los Angeles County experimented with the council form of organization as a county-wide instrument. In 1935 an organization of various co-ordinating councils was perfected in California.

A recent specific outcome at Berkeley is the decision to establish a community counseling service to be supported by a budget, one-half provided by the city council and one-half by the board of education. This new undertaking resulted from a report on local delinquency problems made by the Berkeley Co-ordinating Council to the city council. It is to extend and supplement the school counseling system and to serve in the field of adjustment and delinquency. Here is an example of a co-ordinated attack on the juvenile problem through a positive program of guidance.

The same plan has not been followed by all the councils developed from the Berkeley program. Some of them added representatives from other groups and did not confine their membership to heads of tax-supported

agencies. Current problems determine the type of program to be undertaken, but the success of the program depends largely upon leadership. The movement has brought about direct gains through co-operation and has eliminated duplication of effort in dealing with individual cases, families, and conditions. It has led to improved working relationships among the agencies involved and better social planning in the community.

The work of the co-ordinating council has been summarized by Virgil E. Dickson, Superintendent of the Berkeley Public Schools, in the following statement:

The co-ordinating council, as the name implies, is a co-ordinating device. Each community must adapt the idea to its own circumstances.

The Berkeley Co-ordinating Council, one of the first to be formed, has always maintained its existence as a group of executives employed by the tax-supported agencies of the city, sitting purely as a group to study problems and to plan ways and means by which each of the departments may better proceed with its own work without overlapping or interfering with the others. At the same time the Council is on the alert to any needs of the community that are not being considered by any organization, and ways and means by which these needs may be met.

It is my opinion that the purpose of such a Council is to organize, plan, and study methods of service in the community, rather than to undertake the specific task of doing things. Its value is centered in the opportunity which it provides for the various officials to talk over mutual problems. The Council may identify existing needs and secure available information regarding them. After deliberation, remedial and preventive measures may be outlined and may be assigned or assumed by any agency in the community capable of carrying on. Follow-up studies should be maintained to determine the effectiveness of plans and work.

The Council serves as a clearinghouse for ideas, plans, and recommendations, and helps to mobilize the forces of professional skill and public opinion to get action when and where needed.

Whether the Council is composed of executives of public agencies, or a combination of such with private agencies and community organizations, is a question of what may seem to be most effective in the particular community. I think it is also dependent, at least partially, upon the type of leadership that is chosen for the Council.

g. Community Approach Important. The times underline the importance of the community approach in attacking the problems involved in providing specialized services to children. The sampling illustrations previously given indicate that co-ordinated programs and procedures are in effect in many localities. These programs have not been evaluated; they are but a few of the many examples which might be cited.

From the standpoint of the school, co-operative procedures in functional areas are advantageous. Dr. William G. Carr, Secretary, Educa-

tional Policies Commission, places high value upon community relations when he says:

The energy spent on community relations may sometimes bring greater results than the same amount spent directly on the child.

Many nonschool agencies are constructive helpers in the work that the schools attempt to do. The objectives of education are cherished by such agencies no less than by the schools. Even destructive forces can be slowly changed by education itself. Each generation strives to give its children a better preparation for life than its own.

There are some definite things which schools and teachers may do now, day in and day out, to improve the quality of human materials and to remove harmful influences from the environment of the learner. While the primary contribution of the school is its long-range educative service, the immediate measures available for direct action need not be disregarded. A school which makes a careful, scientific study of the handicaps and assets of each learner, to the end that he may be properly guided, has taken the first step to attainment of its purposes. A school which helps parents in their homes to do a better job of educating their own children will have less errors to correct. A school which links its efforts to those of other agencies with similar purposes makes all such efforts more effective. A school where teachers maintain close contact with the homes of the children and participate in community activities can more readily offset adverse out-of-school forces. A school which is a center of wholesome recreation and education for an entire neighborhood is already doing much to offset undesirable influences. A school which can arrange to be open on Saturdays and Sundays, in the late afternoons and evenings, as a community center, is not only grasping a direct educational opportunity but is making all of its "regular" work more effective by reducing the effectiveness of opposing forces.

III. PROBLEMS AND ISSUES INVOLVED IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND OTHER SOCIAL AGENCIES¹³

Schools draw heavily upon these related public services for the reason that they cannot provide all of the specialized services needed by all growing children and youth today. It does not follow, however, that the services of the schools should be limited solely to academic and vocational instruction. The purposes of education in American democracy are defeated by school programs which are isolated from community needs, insulated against change, narrow in scope, and anemic in character. Problems and issues are inevitable in the effort to develop working relationships between schools and other agencies concerned with educational and social services. They cannot be resolved by wishful thinking or arbitrary

¹³ In this connection, acknowledgment is made of valuable suggestions received from Dr. H. C. Hutchins, Willamette University, Salem, Oregon.

orders; they are very real and must be approached through democratic methods.¹⁴

a. *The Importance of Leadership.* Of prime importance is the matter of leadership in engendering co-ordinated effort on the part of the groups involved. A large share of that responsibility rests with the agency desiring co-operation. In view of the fact that the public school is the basic institution charged with the education of children and concerned with the development of each individual to his fullest capacity, school authorities will do well to enlist the co-operation of other agencies on behalf of children and youth.

The importance of school leadership in social inventiveness has been emphasized by Dr. Frank W. Hubbard, Director of Research, National Education Association. His comment at this point is pertinent:

It should be obvious to most educators, as it seems to be becoming clear to laymen, that many of society's problems are not fully met by existing social agencies. The fault does not seem to lie so much within the agencies themselves as in their intra-agency relationships. Juvenile delinquency is a good illustration. Schools today are doing better than in any previous period in discovering and adjusting to the needs of individual children. Social agencies have in the past decade improved the quality of their personnel, policies, and procedures. Yet many youth become delinquent by slipping between the schools and the other agencies. Much of this waste of human resources could be prevented if educators would lead in the formulation of co-operative relationships. That co-operation between the schools and crime-prevention forces is possible has been clearly demonstrated in certain outstanding communities.

Similar needs exist with respect to health, employment, occupational guidance, housing, recreation, and library services, to mention but a few. The demand for these services has increased in number and intensity because of wartime dislocations in employment, housing, family life, and social controls. With present increased demands and shortages of trained manpower the extent and quality of co-operative effort must be stepped up to new levels. After the war, the public will expect educational leadership and that of the other social agencies to invent and to operate new social machinery and procedures for community co-operation. State and national policies and legislation should be designed to promote rather than to impede this local integration.

b. *Analysis of Needed Services.* Identification of the services needed and a survey of the resources available are first steps. What are the needs of

¹⁴ *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, chap. i. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1938.

Report of the Committee on Building a Better South through Education, pp. 16-18. Improving Education in the South, Bulletin No. 3, 1943. Tallahassee, Florida: Southern States Work-Conference on School Administration, 1943.

children in war and peace? What types of programs and services are required to meet these needs? How can such general terms as physical, mental, social, and educational be translated into specific needs? What should be the extent of the program undertaken by the schools? What ways and means can be found to provide adequate services for all children?

c. Definition of Functions. The definition of functions and the assignment of responsibilities are basic problems. Such questions as these are more or less typical: What group should have charge of health instruction, medical and dental examinations, control of communicable disease, provision for health environment, and medical attention? What agency or agencies should take care of indigent and delinquent children? Under what authority are clinics or guidance and employment services to be organized? Who is to enforce child-labor and compulsory school attendance laws? Shall the administration of public programs in schools, libraries, and recreation centers be unified under one public education authority? How shall gaps and duplications in these services be overcome?

The answer to the question as to which agencies should provide the various social services the community requires is not the same for every community. In the case of the schools, however, the objectives of education should determine the responsibilities to be assumed and the types of services to be rendered. School authorities may well take the initiative in identifying educational needs, developing plans for providing through the schools those services which the schools can and should meet, and enlisting the support of organizations which are best prepared to help the schools meet these needs. With the same end in view, the schools should co-operate with other agencies in meeting needs which can best be met by groups other than the schools.¹⁵

The functions and relationships among agencies rendering specialized services for children should be clarified in the interests of the recipients of these services. The efficiency and economy of operation of these various programs argue also for policies of understanding and collaboration. Furthermore, the need for the co-ordination of the work of the schools and other agencies rendering essential social services cannot be overstated in view of the overwhelming problems which will be precipitated by demobilization.

d. Competition for Funds. The matter of competition for funds to support these agencies is important at all times, but especially now when the

¹⁵ John Guy Fowlkes, *Planning Schools for Tomorrow*, p. 17. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 64. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

need for social services is intensified. This issue is apt to become more serious as the problems of reconstruction loom larger. Without adequate funds and competent personnel, social programs cannot be successful. Co-ordination of effort is necessary not only to the very existence of these specialized services, but also to financial support sufficient to insure their effectiveness.

e. Professional Personnel and Policies. Qualified personnel is a most crucial factor in the success of any professional program. Those who carry out these co-ordinated programs should be technically trained. They should also be cognizant of the aims and services of the different agencies and sympathetic toward co-operation among them. Relevant to this problem of securing competent personnel is the establishment of salary schedules, working conditions, and welfare provisions of the high level needed to recruit and hold efficient workers in the various specialized services. It is uneconomical to employ unqualified personnel.

Time was when the roll of school employees included only teachers, then teachers and custodians. With the increase in school maintenance operations and the enlargement of school functions has come specialization in staff services, so that now a large city school system's list of employees includes persons from many professions and specialized fields other than teaching. Increasingly, such lists reveal persons competent in both teaching and some other field, as for example the school librarian, the visiting teacher, and the school nurse. It is important that, in the coming years, schools of education give further attention to the development of curriculums for such positions as these and for others through which co-operation between schools and other agencies will be promoted.

In the promotion of plans for co-ordinating community services, problems and issues arise which have to do with the determination of policies with regard to such joint services. These require consideration of the legal questions involved, the balance to be sought in the separation and unification of the services, co-ordination of public and private agencies within a field of overlapping services, methods to be employed in rural areas, ways of overcoming inertia and antipathy to change even in the face of demonstrable economies and more effective services under a co-ordinated plan, and means of removing the difficulties which arise from the variability of administrative units. In all such endeavors, the effectiveness of the mechanism will be measured by the vision of the people who operate it and their willingness to work together along professional lines for the accomplishment of common goals. The obstacles are not insurmountable.

IV. SOME GENERAL POLICIES AND GUIDING PRINCIPLES

A realistic approach to the problems and issues involved in organizing and articulating special services for children is essential. Plans should be initiated now which will guarantee that the individual needs of all children will be met during the emergency and in the reconstruction period. Policies should be formulated which will produce effective relationships between schools and other agencies serving children. Co-ordination of effort is as imperative in reaching common objectives on the home front as it is in military engagements.

Obviously no blueprint can be drawn which will fit all situations and clear up all the difficulties. No over-all plan can be devised; local factors must be taken into consideration. The task is to begin with the situation as it is and to effect the reorganizations, wherever they are needed, from time to time within the communities. Results cannot always be secured immediately, but co-operation plus the will to work out arrangements in a democratic fashion will lead in the right direction.

a. Guiding Principles. The concern of education is the development of the kind of program which will assure the maximum development of each person in terms of economic efficiency and social responsibility. Schools cannot undertake to meet all individual needs, but school authorities should know what these needs are and help to meet them. Sometimes improvements should be made within the school system itself, as when structure and administration need modernization. Sometimes the proper procedure is to encourage the organization of other agencies or to secure the co-operation of existing agencies which can perform the particular services needed.

Educators should become increasingly sensitive to the importance of local planning to assure cordial and well-integrated relationships among community agencies. Professional workers in social and welfare areas should understand the place of the school in our American life. These fundamental considerations may well serve to point the way toward common goals.

The general principles which prevail in operating any program successfully, especially where human values and public funds are involved, are applicable in improving the specialized services provided for young people and in approaching the problem of co-operative policy-making. Identification of goals and problems, evaluation of existing programs, continuous use of research as the basis for formulating and improving programs of action, utilization of the experience of others, insistence upon qualified personnel, provision for adequate revenues, and interpreta-

tion of the facts to the public are basic elements in the process of co-ordinating community services.

From the standpoint of public education, the principle of larger administrative units should penetrate more deeply into practice. The typical district unit is too small for the efficient administration of an adequate educational program. Consequently many children are denied acceptable educational advantages. The services of recreation centers, health departments, libraries, and social and welfare agencies do not reach them. Larger units result in a larger tax base, which makes it possible to provide better trained school personnel and broader school programs. They facilitate the administration of the related services in most communities and bring these services to many communities that would not otherwise have them.

The principle of effective co-ordination of these specialized services has been implemented by the community council in many places. It is no longer an experiment on local or state levels. It may take different forms of organization in different localities and it often operates without budget or authority. In such cases it functions as a clearinghouse for ideas and recommendations. It delegates the responsibility for a specific job to the proper agency, mobilizes public opinion and professional skill, and lays the groundwork for realistic planning and action.¹⁶

b. Suggestions for Developing Policies and Programs. School authorities are in a strategic position to assume the role of leadership in developing the co-operative planning needed to provide children with essential services. For that reason the suggestions which follow are addressed primarily to them. These ideas are not new; they are being carried out effectively in many places. They are not final or complete; they are merely springboards for further experimentation.

- 1) *Review the most important recent pronouncements relating to the needs of children in a democracy and the types of services required to meet these needs.* To that end a shelf of selected materials should be organized and made available to faculty members, boards of education, Parent-Teachers Association workers, and others who are concerned with the problem. The preparation of a summary or chart on the subject would be helpful for use in interpreting these needs to busy people. To be well grounded in the facts is of extreme importance in leadership.¹⁷

¹⁶ *Community Life in a Democracy*, chap. xix. Chicago: National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1942.

¹⁷ *Social Services and the Schools*, *op. cit.*, chap. viii.

White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor Bureau Publication No. 266. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

- 2) *Formulate a plan for providing the services necessary to meet all educational needs.* To that end appraise present school programs and outline the major changes which should be made in order that the school may measure up to its responsibilities toward all the population. The examination may reveal the need of better district structure. The machinery may need reorganization in order to make it possible for a modern program to function. It should not become necessary for other agencies to be set up to do the work which belongs to the schools for the reason that the schools are too traditional in character and not modernized in structure.
- 3) *Develop a plan for rendering through the schools those services which the schools are best equipped to provide.* To that end it may be necessary to broaden the school program in such a way as to provide more effective education for all the people of the community—young children, youth in and out of school, and adults. Some suggestions have been set forth in Part I of this yearbook.
- 4) *Take the initiative in obtaining the active support of all organizations and agencies best prepared to help the schools to meet these needs.* To that end, develop working relationships with governmental agencies, private groups, and voluntary educational organizations rendering educational services, especially in the areas of safety, recreation, conservation, health, placement, guidance, parent education, and the services of such cultural agencies as libraries, museums, and art institutes.
- 5) *Co-operate actively with other organizations and agencies in defining needs and preparing plans for meeting educational needs which can best be met by agencies other than the schools.* To that end it will be necessary for the educator to be armed with essential information as to community resources, types of services available and the agencies responsible for them, the gaps and duplications in the services, comparative budgetary statistics, and other relevant facts.
- 6) *Become informed as to the values of the co-ordinating council as an instrument for securing continuous co-operative planning and co-ordinated action on the part of all agencies concerned with children or youth. Assume the leadership in using this device or some other plan which can be designed to produce the desired results; or stimulate others to do it if that is the better procedure.* To that end make sure that the plan attempted fits the local situation, turns the searchlight upon vital problems, sets up the machinery for continuous co-operative endeavor in a democratic fashion, and commands the right type of leadership.
- 7) *Interpret the facts to the public in an interesting and convincing manner.* To that end use such effective channels of publicity as the radio, press, attractive informative materials, meetings, forums, and other devices. Secure the support of other agencies interested in school and community improvement.¹⁸

c. *A Forward Look.* The matter of the relationships of schools to other social and educational agencies is not settled. More evaluation of current programs and more experimentation are needed as the basis for develop-

¹⁸ *Report of the Committee on Building a Better South through Education, op. cit.*

ing policies and programs. Studies and surveys indicate that many excellent demonstrations are being made in communities where leadership and planning point the way. Likewise, they show that many unrelated programs are being undertaken without reference to balance and co-ordination, with the resultant effects of competition for funds, gaps and duplications in the services, and conflicts of interests and activities.

The clarification of relationships and the articulation of essential services are inescapable aspects of educational reconstruction. They cannot be overlooked if the total program for children is to be orderly instead of confused, universal rather than haphazard. Herein lies a challenge to educational statesmanship.

Meanwhile educational leadership can help speed postwar planning in this area by developing comprehensive programs which provide the essential services, by making the school plant available to serve community needs, by working co-operatively with all groups serving children, by initiating the development of any new services needed in removing handicaps which condition child growth and development, and by assuming positive leadership in co-ordinating the educational program with other related programs.

CHAPTER VII

FINANCING EDUCATION

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It may reasonably be assumed that many of the problems related to the financing of school systems will become even more pressing in the period of postwar reconstruction than at any earlier time. The two volumes of the present yearbook describe the extensions and improvements in the instructional program which new educational needs and interests will probably require and explain the changes to be made in existing patterns of organization and control within the several state school systems if the newer conception of equalization of educational opportunities is to be realized on a nation-wide basis. The financial implications of such planning are not difficult to see, since the availability of funds will, on the one hand, condition many proposals for liberalizing educational opportunities and, on the other hand, depend upon the readiness with which essential reforms in school organization and control may be instituted. The crucial quality of educational reconstruction as visualized in this yearbook is the urgency of the need for school care or training among certain groups never yet properly identified with the service functions of an established school system and among others whose school progress has been interrupted because of conditions created by the war. In order that these urgent needs may be met with appropriate school facilities, financial support for any needed extension of school services must be planned for as specifically as the services themselves. The indications are that the financial requirements of the school programs of postwar years will likely rise considerably above the level of present-day expenditures for school purposes. It is, therefore, apparent that the problems involved in financing education will press for solution with all of the urgency of the recognized need for immediate expansion and improvement of the facilities and services of the schools.

I. SIGNIFICANT FACTS ABOUT FINANCIAL SUPPORT FOR SCHOOLS

1. Trends of School Expenditures

It is a familiar fact that the cost of public education in the United States has increased from year to year almost without interruption for a century or more. Comparative statistics have been provided in convenient form by the United States Office of Education for about seventy-five years. The general trend of public contributions to the support of education is reflected in the reports of expenditures for elementary and secondary schools, as summarized in Table I.

TABLE I.—TRENDS OF ENROLMENT AND EXPENDITURES OF PUBLIC
ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1880 TO 1942*

YEAR	ENROLMENT	EXPENDITURES	EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL ENROLLED
1880	9,867,395	\$ 78,094,687	\$ 7.91
1890	12,722,631	140,506,715	11.04
1900	15,503,110	214,964,618	13.87
1910	17,813,852	426,250,434	23.93
1920	21,578,316	1,036,151,209	48.02
1930	25,678,015	2,316,790,384	90.23
1940	25,433,542	2,344,048,927	92.16
1942	24,562,473	2,322,697,688	94.56

* Data from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, pp. 45-46. United States Office of Education, Biennial Surveys of Education, 1938-40 and 1940-42. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

The figures representing gross expenditures, as shown in this tabulation, indicate that the common school systems of the various states cost about twice as much at the end as was expended at the beginning of each decade from 1880 to 1930. The accompanying data, showing the steadily growing enrolment of the schools during this period, provide a partial explanation of the mounting costs. There are other contributing factors, however, as may be inferred from the continuing rise in unit-cost values as shown in the last column of the table. Summarizing an analysis of the trends here depicted, Burke suggests that increased expenditures for public schools may be attributed to the combined influence of four major factors:

(1) those resulting in increased public school attendance; (2) those bringing about changes in the educational program; (3) those causing a change in the status of the teaching profession, including the changed status of women; and (4) those affecting living costs, prices, or the purchasing power of the dollar.¹

¹ Arvid J. Burke, *Defensible Spending for Public Schools*, p. 40. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943.

2. Expenditures for Schools in Depression Years

The economic depression of the early 1930's naturally affected the trend of expenditures for school purposes, as well as the availability of money for other purposes. The trend of school expenditures within the ten-year period ending in 1940 is shown in Table II, the figures presented in this table being comparable to those included in Table I. The serious limitations under which the schools were operating during the depression are indicated by the decline in per-pupil expenditure from \$90.23 in 1930 to \$65.07 in 1934. In succeeding years, however, the revenues available for support of the public schools increased steadily, so that the 1930 level of expenditures was fully restored by 1940. As shown in Table I, the per-pupil expenditure in 1942 was higher than that of 1940.

TABLE II.—ENROLMENT AND EXPENDITURES OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1930 TO 1940*

YEAR	ENROLMENT	EXPENDITURES	EXPENDITURE PER PUPIL
1930.	25,678,015	\$2,316,790,384	\$90.23
1932.	26,275,441	2,174,650,555	82.76
1934.	26,434,193	1,720,105,229	65.07
1936.	26,367,098	1,968,898,198	74.67
1938.	25,975,108	2,233,110,054	85.97
1940.	25,433,542	2,344,048,927	92.16

* Data from United States Office of Education, Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30, and subsequent issues

3. Variability of School Expenditures among States

The data presented in Tables I and II represent the aggregate expenditures and the average per-pupil expenditure for the support of the public elementary and secondary schools of the nation. It is not without significance that financial support of the public school system in some states is markedly below this national average. It is also important to note that the retrenchments necessitated by diminished revenues for school purposes during the depression were much more extensive in some states than in others. The degree of variability in these respects is indicated by the figures appearing in Tables III and IV.

The per-pupil-cost indices shown in Table III are based on the current expenses and the average daily attendance of the elementary and secondary schools for the year 1941-42. These indices are higher than the measures of cost based on enrolment such as are presented in Tables I and II. However, the unit-cost index here used is a comparable measure of the level of school expenditures in all of the school systems represented. The significant disclosure of this tabulation is the wide disparity in the finan-

TABLE III.—CURRENT EXPENSE (EXCLUDING INTEREST) PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE FOR 1941-42, BY STATES*

STATE OR DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	1941-42
Continental United States	\$ 98 31
Alabama.. . . .	39 75
Arizona.. . . .	104 66
Arkansas.. . . .	38 59
California.. . . .	166 92
Colorado... . .	102 38
Connecticut.. . .	124 88
Delaware.. . . .	113 80
Florida	68 08
Georgia.. . . .	44 57
Idaho.. . . .	86 72
Illinois	128 99
Indiana.. . . .	95 97
Iowa	95 40
Kansas...	86 27
Kentucky	51 38
Louisiana.. . . .	65 93
Maine.... . . .	69 72
Maryland.. . . .	89 92
Massachusetts	130 73
Michigan.. . . .	101 91
Minnesota.. . . .	108 26
Mississippi.. . . .	31 52
Missouri.. . . .	86 79
Montana... . . .	125 59
Nebraska.. . . .	85 12
Nevada.. . . .	134 37
New Hampshire.. .	100 70
New Jersey... . .	158 08
New Mexico	83 43
New York... . . .	168 07
North Carolina.. .	45 11
North Dakota.. . .	79 65
Ohio..... . . .	106 13
Oklahoma.. . . .	72 83
Oregon.. . . .	106 97
Pennsylvania	106 90
Rhode Island.. . .	122 99
South Carolina.. .	45 51
South Dakota.. . .	96 33
Tennessee..... .	50 44
Texas...	78 24
Utah...	84 76
Vermont..... . .	93 84
Virginia.. . . .	55 83
Washington.....	127 70
West Virginia.....	72 63
Wisconsin..... .	109 69
Wyoming..... . .	120 29
District of Columbia.. . . .	137 48

* Adapted from Table XV, p 28, *Biennial Surveys of Education, 1938-40 and 1940-42, op. cit.*

TABLE IV.—PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN CURRENT SCHOOL EXPENSE (EXCLUDING INTEREST) FOR SPECIFIED YEARS, BY STATES*

STATE OR DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	1929-30 TO 1933-34	1929-30 TO 1939-40
Continental United States	-17.8	+ 5.3
Alabama	-13.4	+16.0
Arizona	-28.7	+ 2.7
Arkansas	-29.3	+ 5.4
California	-10.9	+23.9
Colorado	-27.3	-13.2
Connecticut	-16.7	- 0.7
Delaware	+ 7.0	+23.5
Florida	- 9.7	+41.1
Georgia	- 2.7	+43.4
Idaho	-30.7	- 3.3
Illinois	-25.6	+ 2.0
Indiana	-28.1	- 7.0
Iowa	-30.5	-15.5
Kansas	-34.7	-19.3
Kentucky	-21.3	+15.3
Louisiana	-18.2	+33.7
Maine	-19.1	- 2.2
Maryland	- 8.3	+14.1
Massachusetts	- 9.4	- 2.6
Michigan	-37.8	-17.9
Minnesota	-22.1	- 1.5
Mississippi	-32.3	- 7.6
Missouri	- 9.0	+18.9
Montana	-27.4	- 7.2
Nebraska	-33.9	-25.2
Nevada	- 5.5	+14.7
New Hampshire	-10.3	+ 0.6
New Jersey	-13.3	+ 4.6
New Mexico	-10.1	+38.0
New York	- 2.6	+17.3
North Carolina	-36.5	+12.0
North Dakota	-38.2	-41.8
Ohio	-21.0	- 1.0
Oklahoma	-30.2	- 0.6
Oregon	-27.2	+ 1.0
Pennsylvania	- 8.8	+ 5.7
Rhode Island	- 4.1	+ 6.9
South Carolina	-26.2	+ 9.6
South Dakota	-35.8	-22.3
Tennessee	-13.9	+15.6
Texas	-14.6	+25.5
Utah	-17.5	+ 7.4
Vermont	-28.4	+ 1.7
Virginia	- 8.8	+18.2
Washington	-29.8	+ 3.4
West Virginia	-27.6	+ 3.8
Wisconsin	-16.6	- 0.4
Wyoming	-31.9	-16.5
District of Columbia	- 9.4	+20.6

* Adapted from Table XVI, p. 29, *Biennial Surveys of Education, 1938-40 and 1940-42, op. cit.*

cial support for schools in such states as New York, California, and New Jersey as compared with that shown for Alabama, Arkansas, and Mississippi. A situation in which the children living in one state are being educated at less than one-fifth the cost of the educational opportunities available to the children of some other states is in itself an impelling demand for immediate reconsideration of the nation's interest in an enlightened citizenry and for the earliest possible alleviation of the effects of such inequalities.

In Table IV the variable effects of the depression on the school systems of different states are shown in terms of the proportionate decline in school expenses from 1929-30 to 1933-34 and the extent to which financial support was restored to the 1929-30 level by the end of the ten-year period. With the exception of Delaware, all states operated their school systems in 1933-34 at less expense than in 1929-30. The proportionate reduction, however, was by no means uniform, the current school expenses reported by eleven states being more than 30 per cent below the 1929-30 level, whereas the reduction was less than 10 per cent in almost an equal number of other states. Moreover, in 1939-40 twenty states were still operating their school systems at less expense than in 1929-30, although the average of current expenses of all the school systems represented was about 5 per cent higher at the end than at the beginning of the decade under consideration.

4. Local School Expenditures

a. Inequalities among Local School Units. Even more marked variation is revealed in the annual expenditures per child within given state school systems. In every state the amount spent per pupil enrolled in some local schools or school systems is annually several times as large as that expended in other schools of the state. Such discrepancies reveal the tragedy of inadequate educational opportunity for thousands of boys and girls even in states in which schools in general are reasonably well supported.

b. Variations among Elementary- and Secondary-School Units of Local School Systems. Expenditures for secondary schools upon many bases have been traditionally higher than those for elementary schools. This condition has developed and prevails chiefly because of larger pupil-teacher ratios in the elementary schools, the higher standards of teacher qualifications in many secondary schools, the practice of paying lower salaries even to teachers of comparable qualifications in the elementary schools, the relatively inadequate educational program and service to children in the elementary school, and the relatively more expensive secondary-school plants. By and large, the difference between elemen-

tary- and high-school costs varies with the size of the school. In discussing this matter, Mort and Reusser write as follows:

In a study made by Cornell from data gathered by the National Survey of School Finance, the ratio of the cost of elementary schools to that of high schools is shown for schools of different sizes enrolling various percentages of pupils in the high schools. For the largest high schools—those enrolling 650 pupils and over and having 50 per cent or more of the total attendance of the school, the ratio of elementary- to high-school costs was found to be 1.1.70. As the schools decrease in size and the percentage of high-school attendance decreases, these ratios increase to 1.2.13 for schools of 100 pupils, 1.2.46 for high schools of 50 pupils, and 1.2.70 for high schools of 25 pupils.²

The question of whether a school is organized on the 8-4 plan or the 6-3-3 plan has been thought to be a determining factor in the cost of education for Grades VII, VIII, and IX. With respect to this matter, Mort and Reusser make the following statement:

The conclusions indicate that the cost for the grades from the seventh to the ninth are higher than for the grades from the first to the sixth, regardless of the type of school organization; and that the difference between the costs of the grades from the first to the sixth and the grades from the seventh to the ninth is about the same, whether the school is organized on the 8-4 basis or on the 6-3-3 basis.³

It seems clear, assuming comparable amount, quality, and scope of educational opportunity, that organization of Grades VII, VIII, and IX does not materially affect school expenditures for those grades.

c. *Expenses of City and County School Systems, 1942 and 1943.* A comparison between expenditures for current expenses among 1,228 city and county school systems for the school years 1941-42 and 1942-43 is reported by the Research Division of the National Education Association in April, 1943. The following condition is reported:

Current expenditures for education as estimated in December for the school year 1942-43 are higher than the actual current expenditures for 1941-42 in about three-fourths of the school systems represented. The per cent of increase was rather small, however, only a little over 4 per cent. The increase in index of prices, or cost of living, between December, 1941, and December, 1942, was 8.9 per cent. In actual purchasing power, therefore, the 4 per cent increase in current expenditures represents a step downward for the schools. . . .

The fact that school enrolments have fallen slightly and that pupil absences have increased means that the current expenditure per pupil in average daily

² Paul R. Mort and Walter C. Reusser, *Public School Finance*, pp. 240-41. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1941.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 241.

attendance would show an increase somewhat greater than the [general 4 per cent increase].⁴

II. SOME DETERMINING FACTORS IN THE COST OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Other things being equal, the cost of an educational program depends upon the quality and scope of the educational program offered. Under normal circumstances, however, other factors are not of equal weight in all localities, and therefore certain noneducational factors must often be considered. Some of the most significant of these are (1) size and density of population, (2) topography and highway facilities, (3) organization and control, (4) personnel policies, and (5) administrative operation.⁵

1. Quality and Scope of Educational Program

The marked variation in the educational program which is now available in local communities throughout the country has already been indicated. The question that must be considered is what kind of educational program is needed. The essential characteristics of a good school are presented in *Planning Schools for Tomorrow*.

Full human development is the major objective of a school. Therefore, the essential offerings in a school program must be wide and varied. The list of minimum essentials for an adequate educational program is much longer than is now found in the majority of our schools. At least the following pupil services and experiences should be available: Necessary formally organized teaching; educational and vocational guidance; library services; extra-curriculum activities; work experience; junior placement services; transportation facilities; lunch facilities; health services, including nutritional, medical, dental, nursing, and psychiatric; and camp experience.⁶

In terms of these requirements for a good school, the question arises as to what age levels are to be served by the schools. It seems clear that appropriate school services must be provided for a much larger number of both younger and older people than has been the case in the past. Specifically, the question of school opportunity for children from three to six years of age and the whole program of adult education must receive consideration in the postwar years.

⁴ *The Nation's Schools after a Year of War*, pp. 34-35. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXI, No. 2. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1943.

⁵ See also Arvid J. Burke, *op. cit.*, pp. 68-70.

⁶ John Guy Fowlkes, *Planning Schools for Tomorrow. The Issues Involved*, pp. 6-7. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 64, 1942. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

2. Size and Density of Population

Obviously one of the major items of cost in an educational program is the number of people to be served and the compactness of the territory in which they reside. The organization of good schools for small groups of pupils is both difficult and expensive. In fact, it is practically impossible to have a good school with an extremely small enrolment, and a desirable educational program is exorbitantly expensive in such situations. Dawson, some years ago, established the following minimum standards of size for satisfactory school units.

- 1) For elementary schools, an area in which reside at least 240 pupils enrolled in elementary-school grades;
- 2) For a six-year high school, an area in which reside at least 210 pupils enrolled in high-school grades;
- 3) For a junior high school, an area in which reside at least 245 pupils enrolled in the junior high school grades;
- 4) For a senior high school, an area in which reside at least 175 pupils enrolled in the senior high school grades.⁷

Although there are still many areas where such standards cannot be met, there are many more areas where such standards for schools could be maintained, but they are not being applied.

3. Topography and Highway Facilities

Providing transportation for children from outlying areas to schools in central units is the most effective means of eliminating small schools. Obviously, the feasibility of extensive transportation is determined to a high degree by the topography of the state and the extent to which its highway system has been developed. Secondary and tertiary roads are particularly important in an efficient system of school transportation. School administrators should recognize the importance to schools of a good highway system and should co-operate with the highway commission on matters pertaining to the maintenance of a desirable program of school transportation.

4. Organization and Control

The expenditures of a local school system may be influenced by its administrative organization as well as by its size. Although freedom from political interference, and hence independence in the fiscal administration of schools, is imperative, boards of education and school administrators should assume responsibility for the proper co-ordination of the serv-

⁷ Howard A. Dawson, *Satisfactory Local School Units*, pp. 39-40. Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, Field Study No. 7 Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934.

ices of the schools with the like services sponsored by other cultural and welfare agencies. Conspicuous among the nonschool cultural, educational, and welfare services with which the educational program should be coordinated are those provided by health, recreation, and welfare agencies; parks; libraries; and museums.

5. Personnel Policies

Another important factor in relation to school expenditures is the personnel policy of the board of education. The financial obligations of the schools are affected by policies governing the methods of selection, salaries, appointment, sick leave, tenure, and retirement allowances of employees. These matters pertain to the welfare of both certificated and noncertificated staffs. Concerted effort must be made to establish and maintain appropriate salary schedules for all school employees. The financial implications of a liberal policy in such matters are in any situation less disturbing than the educational losses to be sustained where reasonable measures of economic security are not provided for the school staff.

6. Administrative Operations

Educational administrators are just as much concerned with maximum operating efficiency as they are with the offering of a sound educational program. The profession of educational administration at its best ranks as high as any other type of public service at the present time. Unfortunately, there are still too many schools and school systems in which operational procedure leaves much to be desired. It is to be hoped that laymen and professional educators alike will increasingly demand standards of administrative operation for schools in keeping with the following definition:

A sound operating charter for public education involves (1) the best possible educational opportunity in the light of financial resources that are or can be made available; and (2) operating efficiency in the management of public education so that maximum value per dollar spent is realized.⁸

III. SOURCES OF SCHOOL REVENUE

An analysis of the sources of school support involves the study of school revenues in terms of the governmental units from which such funds are drawn. With respect to governmental units furnishing school funds, there are four, namely, the Federal Government, the state, the county, and the local school district. When all of the governmental units are considered, a wide variety of ways and means of raising school funds may be observed.

⁸ John Guy Fowlkes, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

1. Trends of Revenue Receipts from Different Sources

Table V shows the revenue receipts of school systems of the United States from 1890 through 1940. It will be observed that the per cent of the total school income derived from permanent school funds and school lands had decreased consistently, so that in 1940 only 1 per cent came from this source. The per cent of school revenues furnished by the counties and local school districts remained practically the same from 1890 to 1910, increased somewhat from 1910 through 1930, and decreased sharply between 1930 and 1940, at which time the percentage was slightly less than in 1890. The per cent of school funds coming from the state governments decreased from 1890 through 1920, increased slightly between 1920 and 1930, and increased sharply between 1930 and 1940. In 1940 nearly 30 per cent of all school revenues was furnished by the state governments.

2. Revenue Receipts of State School Systems

The source of school support continues to vary greatly among the states. In some states no school money whatever is derived from county sources. On the other hand, in 1941-42 the schools of Nevada, Tennessee, and West Virginia received approximately half of their total revenues from county sources. All states except West Virginia received some school revenues from district or local sources, the percentage ranging from 8.2 in Delaware and 9.4 in Louisiana to 95.1 in Iowa. The percentage of total school revenues derived from state sources ranged from 1.6 in Iowa and 2.2 in Oregon to 77.8 in New Mexico and 90.0 in Delaware. The percentage of receipts from federal and other sources was less than 3.0 except in Alabama, Arkansas, California, Mississippi, Nevada, and Wyoming. The greatest increases in the proportion of school funds derived from state sources during the ten-year period from 1932 to 1942 occurred in the following states: Arizona, an increase from 23.2 per cent to 54.8; Arkansas, from 19.4 to 47.4; California, from 21.8 to 43.2; Idaho, 8.2 to 23.8; Indiana, 9.7 to 31.6; Kansas, 1.5 to 12.9; Louisiana, 28.8 to 56.5; Michigan, 23.7 to 44.6; Missouri, 6.9 to 31.5; New Mexico, 18.5 to 77.8; Ohio, 5.0 to 35.4; Oklahoma, 10.8 to 43.1; South Carolina, 28.1 to 48.6; and West Virginia, 7.3 to 49.7. During that period West Virginia also changed from 92.0 per cent of funds from local sources and none from county sources to 49.3 per cent for county sources and none from local sources.

The percentage of revenue receipts for schools received by each state from each of these sources in 1941-42 is given in Table VI.

TABLE V.—REVENUE RECEIPTS OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS FROM
DIFFERENT SOURCES, 1890 TO 1940*

SOURCE OF REVENUE	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Income from permanent funds and land.....	\$ 7,744,765 5 4	\$ 9,152,274 4.2	\$ 14,096,555 3.2	\$ 26,036,098 2.7	\$ 27,516,517 1 3	\$ 23,104,293 1 0
Per cent of total revenue.....						
County and local taxes and ap- propriations.....	97,222,426 67.9	149,486,845 68 0	312,221,582 72 1	758,896,551 78.2	1,645,687,651 78 8	1,490,424,784 65.9
Per cent of total revenue.						
State taxes and appropriations	26,345,323 18.4	37,886,740 17.2	64,604,701 14.9	134,278,753 13.8	329,312,434 15.8	658,983,264 29.2
Per cent of total revenue.....						
Revenue from all other sources	11,882,292 8.3	23,240,130 10 6	42,140,859 9 8	50,908,896 5.3	86,040,235 4.1	88,014,704 3 9
Per cent of total revenue . . .						
Total amount.....	\$143,194,806	\$219,765,989	\$433,063,697	\$970,120,298	\$2,088,556,837	\$2,260,527,045

* Data from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1899-40 and 1941-42*, op. cit., pp. 45-46.

TABLE VI.—PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOOL REVENUE RECEIPTS IN EACH STATE DERIVED FROM STATE, COUNTY, LOCAL, AND FEDERAL SOURCES IN 1941-42*

STATE	STATE SOURCES	COUNTY SOURCES	LOCAL SOURCES	FEDERAL SOURCES
United States..	31.5	6 3	60 8	1.4
Alabama....	54.9	22.8	18 9	3.3
Arizona....	54.8	5 5	38 5	1 2
Arkansas....	47.4	3 8	45 7	3.0
California....	43.2	1 6	49.0	6 0
Colorado.....	9 0	20 3	70 0	.7
Connecticut**.	10.0	89 5	.5
Delaware....	90 0	8 2	1.8
Florida**....	47.4	21.5	30.1	1.0
Georgia....	57 3	16 3	23 9	2.4
Idaho....	23 8	14 7	60 6	.9
Illinois....	9 0	.1	89 7	1.2
Indiana....	31 6	.6	67 1	.7
Iowa....	1.6	2.4	95 1	.9
Kansas.....	12.9	13.4	72.9	.8
Kentucky**....	38.1	27.8	32.3	1.8
Louisiana....	56.5	32.2	9.4	1.8
Maine.....	10.9	..	88.1	1.0
Maryland**..	23.4	33 5	41 9	1 2
Massachusetts..	13.1	..	86 4	.5
Michigan....	44.6	.5	53 8	1.1
Minnesota....	34.3	6	64 0	1.1
Mississippi....	35 1	15 5	43.5	5.8
Missouri....	31 5	1 1	66.4	1.0
Montana....	21 1	17 1	61.0	.8
Nebraska....	6.3	2.1	88.9	2.7
Nevada....	19 9	55 5	21.2	3.4
New Hampshire..	6.0	..	92.3	1.7
New Jersey**....	9 7	13 7	76.1	.5
New Mexico....	77.8	8 3	12 4	1.5
New York....	33.7	65.9	.4
North Carolina..	66.2	22 6	9.0	2.1
North Dakota...	20.8	5.0	73.5	.7
Ohio.....	35.4	.3	63.7	.6
Oklahoma....	43.1	6.2	48 1	2.5
Oregon.....	2.2	22.2	74 9	.7
Pennsylvania.....	24.6	74 8	.6
Rhode Island....	10.2	..	89 1	.7
South Carolina....	48 6	5 3	44.2	1.9
South Dakota....	17 9	3 0	77.2	1.9
Tennessee**....	37 3	45 9	15 1	1.7
Texas**....	49 4	5	49.2	.9
Utah.....	40 1	..	59 0	.9
Vermont....	16 3	80 8	2.9
Virginia....	35.6	34 6	28.0	1.6
Washington....	54 1	5 0	38.8	2.1
West Virginia..	49.7	49 3	1.0
Wisconsin....	29 4	7 5	62 2	.9
Wyoming..	21 2	17.1	52 6	9.1

* Data supplied by United States Office of Education.

** Includes a considerable amount of money reallocated to counties or other units on exactly the same basis as it was received by the state.

IV. SOME CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING STATE-AID PROGRAMS

Since it is clear that the state government should provide a substantial part of the money needed for the support of public schools, it is important at this time that every state evaluate its present plan of state aid to local school districts in terms of probable postwar needs. Seven criteria are suggested as bases for evaluating existing plans of state participation in the financial support of schools. These are: (a) adequacy, (b) certainty, (c) effect on organization, (d) equalization of educational opportunity attained, (e) effect on administration, (f) effect on the control of public education, and (g) effect on local initiative and local school support.

a. Adequacy. The first requirement for a sound plan of state participation in the support of public education is that a state should furnish enough money to make possible an adequate educational program in every community. Among some of the states this may not be possible, but certainly the state should furnish amounts of money for the financial support of schools commensurate with the state's responsibility and economic resources. Furthermore, a desirable plan for state support of public education should provide state funds for all levels and all types of public education.

In some states, the amount of state support for a given type or level of education is relatively greater than for other phases of the educational program. Such a plan for state support imposes a serious handicap on those phases of the program for which state support is inadequate. Furthermore, an unbalanced program of state support stimulates and encourages competition among the various groups administratively responsible for the different units of school organization within the state.

Another important problem which has not received sufficient recognition in state plans of school support is that of giving consideration to all of the financial requirements of local school systems. For example, capital-outlay needs for school plants and the cost of transportation facilities do not receive appropriate consideration in many states. This is particularly true of the matter of capital outlay. Alabama has made considerable progress toward an equitable plan for state aid to local communities for school buildings. In light of the school-building needs of the postwar period, this feature of state-aid programs deserves special attention in all states.

b. Certainty. In appraising a state plan of school support, serious consideration should be given to the matter of determining the amount of money each district is to receive. The National Survey of School Finance reported that in 1933 only eight states, namely Connecticut, Massachusetts, Nevada, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Ten-

nessee, had made complete provision for computing the amount of state support for each district in advance.⁹

Again, as noted in the report of the National Survey of School Finance, Ohio's equalization law then contained provisions for state support, expressed in general terms, but the actual standards were established by the state department of education. New York's law, on the contrary, set up specific standards to be observed in all cases, with the exception that the pupil-teacher ratio might be modified after experience in the operation of the original provisions of the law. The significance of these procedures is indicated in the following quotation from the survey report.

The school authorities in New York are doubtless in a better position to withstand pressure toward modifications made for the purpose of reducing expenses than they would be if the original standards had been determined by departmental action. It is believed that this point is well worth considering in drafting a state-aid law.¹⁰

Educational services are sometimes impaired because the payment of state appropriations for school purposes is not fully guaranteed. During the decade of 1930 to 1940, particularly, state appropriations for public education were often in default or were prorated on account of tax delinquencies. Prorating of school funds is sometimes necessary because school appropriations are contingent upon specified types of taxes such as state income taxes, gasoline taxes, or liquor taxes. It is recognized that when special taxes are allocated to the school fund and during periods of economic stress it may be difficult, if not impossible, to estimate available state revenue exactly. It seems desirable, therefore, that school appropriations should be made from the general revenue of the state with priority over most, if not all, state commitments other than those for such essential functions as health service.

c. Effect on School Organization. One of the soundest criteria for evaluating state plans of financial support for schools is the effect the plan has upon the organization of public education. Financial support of public education by a state should encourage sound organization and discourage poor organization. This thesis applies equally validly to the organization of local school units (commonly called districts) on the one hand, and the internal organization of a given school system on the other.

State support of public education should not encourage the perpetuation of unduly small local school units. Desirable reorganization of local school units should at all times be encouraged. The period from 1920 to

⁹ Paul R. Mort, *State Support for Public Education*, p. 218. National Survey of School Finance. Washington. American Council on Education, 1933.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 219.

1940 marked the greatest advance in the support of public education. Yet, in far too many states, the plan of state support which still prevails in 1944 tends to retard desirable reorganization of local school units. Conspicuous examples of such plans are those of Minnesota, New York, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin.

With respect to the internal organization of a given school system, the plan of state support should be such that artificial separation of the various levels of public education within a local community, such as elementary and secondary education, should not be encouraged. In some states the differentiation between the support of elementary education and secondary education is so marked that local communities attempt to classify given grades, such as the seventh, eighth, and ninth, either as elementary or secondary education in terms of the advantages that would ensue in light of the plan of state support.

d. Equalization of Educational Opportunity. The most fundamental criterion for evaluating the plan of state support for public education is the degree of equalization of educational opportunity attained. Every state should decide the minimum or foundation program on all levels that is appropriate for all sections of the state. Only in so far as the areas in a state which in the past have not enjoyed the acceptable minimum educational program move toward such a minimum program is the state plan of financial support for schools to be considered sound.

The attainment of equalization of educational opportunity is closely associated with the effect of the state plan of support on the organization of local school units. However, other considerations are also directly involved. The educational needs of the community, adequate school buildings and equipment, acceptable length of school year, and the quality of the instructional program should be definitely recognized in a sound plan of state support.

e. Effect on Administration. State support of public education implies an obligation on the part of the state to be concerned with, and to stimulate improvement in, the administrative operation of local schools. Such matters as proper budgetary procedure, adequate financial accounting, judicious financing of extra-curriculum activities, and efficient purchasing service should be so recognized in the administration of the state-aid program as to improve the quality of local school management.

The relationship between school administrators and the administrators of general governmental units should be definitely established in any plan of state school support. In some states school funds from the state are distributed to a nonschool intermediary officer for redistribution to school authorities. Assuming competent fiscal administration by school administrators, there seems to be no good reason why state school funds

should not be distributed directly to the local school agency responsible for public education, namely, county or local boards of education.

f. Effect on Control of Public Education. State support of public education should in no way tend to weaken the proprietary interest of the locality in its schools. In contributing to the financial support of local schools, the state is simply fulfilling the obligation implied in its recognition of public education as a state function. State school appropriations should be safeguarded against predatory attack and exploitation by any interest group. Repeated attempts have been made in many areas to associate the financial support of public education with some political party or some special group of educational leaders. All such attempts should be vigorously resisted and, in so far as is possible, the statutory provisions establishing a plan of state support should guard against such malpractice.

The above statements by no means belittle the active effort which groups of citizens and organizations such as the parent-teacher associations exert in favor of adequate financial support for public education. Such activity is laudable and should be appreciated and encouraged.

g. Effect on Local Initiative and Local School Support. Financial support of public education by the state should in no way freeze the educational program of a given school system. Constant effort by local school staffs directed toward the improvement of the local school educational program should be stimulated rather than discouraged by the plan of state support. State support should not weaken or stultify local school support and initiative. Both state and local responsibility should be recognized in formulating plans for state participation in the financial support of public schools. The state should be neither domineering nor paternalistic in its relations with local school units. Definite provision should be made in the state-support plan for the exertion of a reasonable amount of financial effort by every local taxing area in the support of the program of public education deemed necessary by the state.

What is reasonable financial effort for a given community toward the support of its schools can be judged in terms of its economic status in comparison with other communities within the state. In establishing the minimum financial contribution that should be required of a community, care should be taken to include all practicable measures of financial ability. Furthermore, consideration should be given to evidence of irregularities in the assessment of property in any section of the state. Improvement in assessment practices is recognized by students of public finance as one of our most pressing fiscal problems at the present time.

V. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOL FINANCE AND OTHER PUBLIC FINANCE

Adequate and sound financing of public education cannot be divorced from broad basic questions affecting the general structure of governmental or business finance. Some of the major relationships between public finance generally and school finance involve tax jurisdiction of the federal, state, and local governments; tax limitations; the levying and distribution of public utility taxes; the earmarking of taxes; government's debt policies; and the collection and administration of government's revenues.

a. Multiplicity and Financial Relationships of Governmental Unit
According to information furnished by the Bureau of the Census, there were more than 160,000 of the commoner types of local government units within the United States in 1940. These were distributed as follows:

Counties.....	3,072 ^a
Cities, boroughs, and villages..	16,635
Towns and townships.....	24,595
School districts....	116,626 ^b
Total.....	160,928

^a Includes the District of Columbia and Yellowstone National Park.

^b School districts are often coterminous with other units.

When the tax jurisdictions of the Federal Government and the various states together with those of local units of government are recognized it is not surprising that the tax program of our country is confusingly complicated. The tax powers of the Federal Government and of the various states are limited by the provisions of their constitutions. The tax limitations embodied in state constitutions, such as those relating to classification of taxable property, have hampered the modernization of the tax program in several of the states, as for example, Illinois.

As Groves points out, while not so important in tax administration, not a few school districts have their own assessor and tax collector. Nearly one-fourth of the total property taxes levied in 1932 were levied by school districts.

b. Tax Limitations. In an attempt to relieve the burden that has been thrown upon real estate, some states, such as Ohio, Indiana, Michigan and Oklahoma, have enacted property-tax limitation laws or have amended the constitution to the same effect. Such tax limitations provide a

¹¹ H. M. Groves, *Financing Government*, p. 78. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1931.

over-all limitation to the total tax exactions to be imposed on property such as that found in Michigan where a maximum property tax of fifteen mills may be levied by the several taxing jurisdictions concerned. A limitation on the taxes that may be authorized for school purposes is a provision of the general school law common to most states. There is no question but that the general property tax has furnished an undue proportion of public revenue at both the local and state levels in many instances. However, over an extended period of time, property is income producing, and hence, ownership of property is one of the determining factors in the economic status of people. Consequently, a property tax is generally recognized as essential in a well-balanced tax program.

During recent years a condition has arisen in some localities where the property tax has been devoted largely to the support of public education. In such communities it has been inevitable that the increasing expenditures for public education have brought some protest from property owners. Such protest has come partly, if not largely, from the lack of understanding that the schools are being supported largely by the property tax. For example, in a small midwestern city, a sharp attack was recently directed against the so-called excessive cost of the schools as indicated by a marked increase in the per cent of the local millage being devoted to school purposes. When it was pointed out that the municipally owned power and light company furnished sufficient revenue to pay all costs of local government and that the local tax rate for school purposes was only slightly higher than it had been over the preceding decade, the original opposition to the cost of schools changed to staunch support. Over-all property tax limitations or specific tax limitations for school purposes will not solve the problem of excessively high property taxes. Those concerned with the adequate financial support of public education should make sure that they understand the total tax program and evince an interest in the sound and adequate support of all governmental enterprise as well as of schools.

c. Tax Administration. Groves, Gulick, and Newcomer, in discussing tax administration, write as follows:

Two propositions concerning administration are very common in the literature of tax co-ordination. The first is that overlapping state and federal taxes involve substantial waste in unnecessary costs of tax administration and taxpayer compliance. The second (acceptable only with qualifications, as indicated later) is that taxation is no exception among the functions of government in the application of the rule that the level of government which can perform the task most efficiently should be the one to which such task is delegated.

Unfortunately, data on both cost of administration and cost of compliance are difficult to obtain. It is an indication of the degree to which the co-ordination movement has confined itself to the verbal sphere that no one has ever under-

taken to assemble complete and authoritative cost data. Any agency, either of a fact-finding or administrative character, to whose lot may fall the responsibility of further work in the field of intergovernment fiscal relations, should, in our judgment, consider this as research project No. 1. This recommendation cannot be urged too strongly.¹²

In considering the cost of tax administration, cost of compliance to the taxpayer must be recognized. Concerning the matter of tax administration, the same authorities draw the following conclusions:

1. Combined costs of administration and compliance, federal and state, are quite sufficient, particularly as applied to federal and state income, death, and business taxes, to warrant considerable effort to achieve a reduction.

2. State administrative costs for some taxes are high enough to warrant a presumption against state use of such sources of revenue unless other means of reducing the cost of the tax mechanism can be found.

3. State administrative disadvantages are quite pronounced for some taxes. They are particularly serious where the limitations are inherent and cannot be materially relieved by improvement in human institutions.

4. Two Federal Government probably has a balance of advantages in the administration of all major taxes except the property tax and the motor-vehicle tax. The comparative advantage for some, such as the gasoline tax, is relatively small, while for others, like the tobacco tax, it is conspicuously high. If the fiscal independence of the states is to be maintained at even its present level, other interests than those of strictly administrative advantage must be weighed in the balance.¹³

d. School-Tax Collection and Administration. Practice concerning the allocation of the cost of collecting and administering local property taxes for schools varies widely. In some cities where boards of education are fiscally independent, the city or county administration assumes the full responsibility and cost of collection and administration of taxes for school purposes. In other situations a charge is made against the school district for such services. Among the cities where boards of education are fiscally dependent, practice likewise varies, although in most instances the cost of the tax collection and administration for schools is charged to the general city government. For purposes of cost accounting, it seems equitable to determine the cost of tax collection and administration for schools and to allocate it accordingly. For the realization of desirable operating efficiency, it seems sound to centralize the collection and administration of all taxes in one single agency.

¹² Harold M. Groves, Luther Gulick, and Mabel Newcomer, *Federal, State, and Local Government Fiscal Relations*, p. 306. Seventy-eighth Congress, First Session, Senate Document No. 69. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 314.

e. Governmental Debt Policies. There seems to be a widespread expectancy among school administrators for a large federal public works program after the war. Such a works program may materialize, but the planning of postwar school-building programs should receive careful and intelligent attention by state and local officials now. The degree to which the Federal Government can inaugurate and execute a huge public works program depends partly at least on the federal debt policy.

One of the major questions which faces the nation after the war is that of our national debt policy. The waging of modern warfare has necessitated the marked increase in our national debt during the past few years. The question which faces us in the near future is the extent to which we should continue to go into debt nationally or the extent to which we should immediately exert concerted effort to pay off the debt under which we suffer. Solely to throw the problem in sharp relief, the following statement by Harold G. Moulton is presented:

Two opposing philosophies with respect to public finance exist in high government circles today. The first, which may be called the *traditional* view, is that a continuously unbalanced budget and rapidly rising public debt imperil the financial stability of the nation. The second, or *new* conception, is that a huge public debt is a national asset rather than a liability and that continuous deficit spending is essential to the economic prosperity of the nation.¹⁴

VI. FINANCING PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE FUTURE

In a very real sense, the financial future of public education will be as it has been in the past, both a cause and an effect of our general economic condition. It is increasingly clear that unprecedented intelligence and effort must be exerted if economic chaos or ruin is to be avoided. A national income level must be maintained which will make possible full employment and the highest development of human beings. Such development can take place only if an adequate educational program of the highest type is available.

1. Annual Expenditures

In 1942 expenditures for public education in this country were approximately \$2,700,000,000. Assuming the type of educational program which has been indicated, equitable salaries, adequate retirement provisions, and efficient organization, annual expenditures for public education are approximately one-half of what they should be. In other words,

¹⁴ Harold G. Moulton, *The New Philosophy of Public Debt*. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1943.

See also Alvin H. Hansen, *Fiscal Policy and Business Cycles*. New York: W. W. Norton, Inc., 1941.

we need to spend approximately \$6,000,000,000¹⁵ a year on public education if all parts of the country are to enjoy a desirable minimum of educational opportunity.

In addition to increasing annual expenditures for school purposes, it is obvious that school-plant needs after the war will be enormous. Thurston¹⁶ indicates that the "catch-up" program of school-plant construction alone will cost at least \$2,500,000,000. If nursery schools and camp facilities are added to our school program, another \$2,500,000,000 for school plants will probably be needed. These figures are not exorbitant. In terms of social essentialness, such expenditures for public education are conservative. Expenditures of such amounts as those recommended would increase markedly the value received per dollar spent for education. One of the tragedies of the existing situation with respect to expenditures for public education is that the quality of service rendered brings low returns.

2. Degree of Support by Various Governmental Units

Much has been written and many suggestions have been made as to the desirable percentage of financial support of public education that should be borne by the various governmental units, namely, federal, state, county, and local. It seems clear that the degree of financial obligation assumed by these various units of government must vary in terms of the economic status of the various states; the organization of various units of civil government; and the organization of local school units. One thesis seems irrefutably clear, namely, that the federal government must assume a significantly larger responsibility in the financing of public education. On the whole, the South simply is not able to support public education as are the other sections of our country.

Dr. Norton, Alabama State Superintendent of Education, writing in the May, 1943, issue of the *Alabama School Journal* puts the case fairly when he says:

After Alabama has done all that can reasonably be expected of our great state toward the liberal support of her schools, we shall even then be in critical need of federal aid for public education, as will all the other southern states. The southern states have approximately one-eighth of the nation's wealth to yield one-sixth of the nation's income for public education; but on that one-sixth of the national school income they are trying to educate more than one-third of the na-

¹⁵ National Resources Planning Board, *Postwar Plan and Program*. National Resources Development Report for 1943, Part I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

¹⁶ Lee M. Thurston, "Postwar School-Plant Finance," *Nation's Schools*, XXXIII (March, 1944), 31.

tion's children, at a time when adequately trained manpower is recognized as the prime factor in waging a war for the preservation of freedom. . . . That government which should have, and must have, and does have the right to reach into the most poverty-stricken home in the remotest section of the most backward county of the poorest state of this Union, and say to that home, "Send me the choicest manhood of your home to face the battleline in protection of democracy" must dedicate some of its wealth to the proposition that every child in every home shall have the opportunity to develop his skill, his talents, intelligence, attitudes, and ideals in such a way as to make him fit to serve democracy in time of war or in time of peace.¹⁷

3. Management of Public School Finances

No discussion of financing public education can ignore consideration of the question of management. Such matters as financial accounting, budgetary procedures, stores management and control, and the whole question of financial support and business administration of extra-curriculum activities are extremely important in the establishment of public education on a sound financial basis. State departments of education should recognize the imperativeness of making sure that these functions are efficiently rendered. All school funds should be audited by a licensed or certified public accountant at the close of every school year. Bonding of all school officials who are responsible for the administration of school monies should be universally obligatory. Insurance programs for schools should be developed on lines comparable to those reflected in any well-administered industrial concern.

Concerted study should be made by superintendents of schools and boards of education concerning the best way to finance school-building programs. Although marked improvement has been made in this connection in the last twenty-five years, thorough-going revision of legislation governing the issuance of school bonds and the administration of school bonds by school districts is still needed in many quarters. Although during the last decade many school districts have refinanced outstanding bond issues at very advantageous interest rates, an unduly large number of other school districts have been unable to effect savings in this manner because of inadequate legislation. It should be possible for school boards to take advantage of money market conditions just as is the case with private business, and legislation should be passed in all states accordingly.

School administrators should study existing statutes pertaining to public education and join with laymen in modernizing existing legisla-

¹⁷ E. B. Norton, "War Emphasizes Need for Education," *Alabama School Journal*, LX (May, 1943), 33-34.

tion so that the most efficient fiscal administration may be enjoyed. School expenditures are the fiscal interpretation or reflection of school policies and activities. Educational administrators should determine and let be known what a desirable education program costs. Too often school administrators have "gotten along" on the money that was available and have failed to indicate to school constituencies the effect inadequate school funds have on boys and girls.

Public education was one of the major platforms upon which this country was founded. The American public has reflected and is showing now more than ever before an abiding faith in the essentialness and effectiveness of public education.

At the same time, the public is wanting to know "Why?" and "For what?" in connection with requested funds for public school expenditures. The interpretation and translation of the financial demands of the kind of educational program which will be, along with the home, the major force in the development of human character, is an unescapable obligation on the one hand, and a thrilling challenge on the other to all those concerned with the administration of public education in the United States during the coming years.

CHAPTER VIII

THE ROLE OF RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

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This yearbook focuses attention on those educational problems emerging in the crisis of war. It is clear that the impact of war has affected the function and structure of education from nursery school to university and is modifying education at the adult level. Literally, this war will leave its mark on education from the cradle to the grave. Nothing is clearer than that *laissez-faire* methods and procedures should no longer be confused with the processes of democracy. Education for the years ahead must be characterized by more rigorous thinking, bold experimentation, and scientific appraisal. A résumé of the problems confronting education is appropriate to a consideration of the role research will play in the impending reconstruction of education.

This yearbook calls attention to the new population groups to be served. The nursery school is a product of the research laboratory. The extension of education to children under the age of five years raises a multitude of questions that can be answered only through intensive and extensive research. The provision of education through the thirteenth and fourteenth years for all youth at public expense is still an uncharted sea. Under what auspices it shall be administered, to what ends it shall be directed, the character of its content, where and how it blends into adult education—all these are questions that will be satisfactorily answered only through tested experiment and research. Moreover, the yearbook indicates that the whole area of adult education is still very much of a no-man's land. To bring all of the sporadic enterprises in education of adults into some semblance of purposeful structure requires large-scale research into the foundations of the structure and purpose of the society of free men as it is developing in this western hemisphere.

Nor are all the problems of education limited, by any means, to the new population groups to be served. To make the advantages of kindergarten instruction available to all children at the age of five, to make the

privileges of secondary education adapted to the needs of the individual available to all youth to the age of eighteen, to develop programs of health that serve well every child, to help adequately every handicapped child, to develop means of making new knowledge of the content and method of instruction function in all schools—these are but illustrations of problems increasingly requiring effective study.

A new civic education is needed. The processes of democracy cannot be taken for granted. Just as the child grows up realizing that he is a citizen of his state and of the United States, so he will hereafter grow in knowledge of his citizenship of the United Nations. Nor will the least test of civic education be its effect in creating the will and capacity of youth to make their community a better place in which to live. Through what content and method of instruction will such goals be achieved?

The years between 1920 and 1940 were a period of intensive study and experimentation with the curriculum. There was much sifting of knowledge with new content added and old content abandoned. Much was learned as to desirable organization and gradation of knowledge. Marked progress was made in adapting the content and method of instruction to the abilities and needs of individuals; and in making the processes of education harmonize with the purposes of democracy. But as this year-book points out, what has been accomplished merely opens a vista of what may be done in developing a generation that will fulfil the dreams of men who would be free.

That education does not and cannot operate without due regard for other governmental and social effort is duly set forth in preceding chapters. Purposes need to be more clearly defined. The many different means of dividing labor and of co-ordinating effort need to be evaluated. Principles governing function, articulation, and responsibility must be evolved and tested. No child should be handicapped because of conflict between agencies or lack of understanding of their respective obligations.

Should nursery school and kindergarten be appendages to or integral parts of the elementary school? Is the junior high school on the way out? Should the continuation school give way to the young people's college? Shall vocational and academic education continue as two parallel lines of a developing system or be merged into one broad comprehensive program? Will the school continue as a place where children are segregated from life for certain hours of 150 to 200 days of each year or as a place where children, parents, and teachers meet frequently in the continuing process of education? What happens to the school that really makes experience in work a goal and a method of education? What changes are needed in the structure of education to enable the state school system to render the services to youth that were attempted by the Federal Government

through the C.C.C., the N.Y.A., and the W.P.A.? This yearbook suggests answers to some of these questions and raises still other questions that must be answered.

The chapter that follows suggests the need for long-range educational planning. Through planning, democracy moves away from the *laissez-faire* processes, moves toward making the processes of government serve better the interests of all the people. The test of good planning is "to promote the general welfare." Research is basic to the formulation of educational policy.

From nursery school to university the content and structure of education is undergoing change. Some of the changes are drastic and obvious as, for example, the provision of nursery schools under federal grant and the taking over of the colleges by the Army and the Navy. Other changes are subtle and less apparent, as the effect of fathers and brothers going to war on the emotions of children in the classroom, or the effect of this titanic struggle on what we shall teach children hereafter concerning war and peace.

I. THE EXPANSION OF RESEARCH IS AN IMPERATIVE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

The character of the problems confronting the schools and colleges, the far-reaching effects their solution will have on the United States, and the urgency of obtaining the best possible solution of many of them, makes the expansion of research one of the imperatives in American education.

Probably the most urgent current need of education in the United States is that the several states individually should develop an active, aggressive, responsible leadership of education within their borders. Such leadership can be provided only on a broad comprehensive basis of research directed to the formulation of policy and to a more or less continuing evaluation of educational programs.

Much of the research needed in education will be in the nature of controlled experimentation. Thus far, American education has developed largely through the processes of trial and error. The process is not necessarily bad; but often it is wasteful. Research refines the process, by submitting the germinal idea to more rigorous thinking, by checking the proposal against other efforts that have included similar or identical elements, by objectively defining and describing content and method, by testing outcomes, and by publishing results so that others may profit from what is good and be forewarned against that which does not prove good.

Obviously the worth of many changes can be fully tested only in the

adult life of the individual concerned. Carefully formulated and controlled research over a period of years is essential to the appraisal of such change. Terman's study of gifted children in California¹ illustrates a type of research that needs to be extended in evaluating various forms, methods, and types of education.

Whatever the national income of the future may be, it is certain there will not be enough income to enable the people of the United States to do all they will desire to do. Memories of the hard economic choices of the 1930's are too recent to justify easy optimism as to the future. Choices will be inevitable. And nowhere will expenditures be subjected to closer scrutiny than in education. To make certain that every dollar expended for public education is spent to the best possible advantage of all the people, it is essential that educational authorities, state and local, conduct more or less continuous inquiries into the character and cost of public education.

Research is the handmaiden of planning. Research is one of the processes through which raw material is obtained for planning and for periodically revising plans. Russia astounded the world by announcing a five-year plan. Before the five years were ended, a second five-year plan was announced. People began to ask whether a democracy such as the United States had the capacity or the will to plan its future. School buildings in the United States last many years, yet a student of school-building surveys some years since suggested that every board of education should resurvey its building needs every five years. Planning is not something done once and for all. It is a continuing process, with the emphasis now here and now there, with research trying always to anticipate the need and to provide the data from which plans can be made before the pressure becomes acute.

II. AN APPRAISAL OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Educational research in the United States had its beginning within the professional careers of men now living. The address by J. M. Rice to the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence in 1897, is generally considered the first serious proposal for the scientific study of education.² Toward the end of the first decade of the twentieth century, Strayer, Thorndike, and Ayres made their several studies of the retardation, elimination, and progress of children by age and grade. Thorndike

¹ L. M. Terman and Others, *Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children*. Genetic Studies of Genius, Vol. I. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1925.

² Walter S. Monroe, "Preface," *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*, p. vii. New York: Macmillan Co., 1941.

introduced the use of statistical method in the study of educational problems. Stone, Courtis, and Thorndike constructed the first educational tests and Goddard introduced the Binet intelligence test, later improved by Terman. The Hanus survey of the New York City schools in 1911 publicized these early attempts to develop research techniques; and the use of psychological testing in the Army in 1917-18 both dramatized the possibilities of research and stimulated the use of testing throughout American schools. Between 1915 and 1925 the first bureaus of educational research were established in city and state school systems and in state universities.³ Some of these have survived and grown in usefulness through the years as those in the state universities of Iowa and Ohio, the state education departments of Connecticut and New York, the cities of Baltimore, Detroit, and New York. Others, started under more or less favorable auspices, have disappeared or struggled along with indifferent success. A comprehensive appraisal of the factors contributing to the growth and success of these several organized efforts would be most helpful as a basis for the extension of research in American education.

Whatever their relative merit or defect, since 1920 the methods of research have been applied to the study of nearly every educational problem. Many of these attempts have been superficial and futile. Others have led to fundamental changes in the content or structure of education. Among the latter may be mentioned Thorndike's studies of individual differences among children, Mort's researches in state financing of education, and the studies in educational method by Lewin and others.

The variety and extent of research in American education are indicated by the contents of the *Review of Educational Research* and of the *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*. The *Review* was established in 1931 as the official organ of the American Educational Research Association. In three-year cycles, five issues a year, it reviews all research in American education. Under the general direction of an editorial board, each issue is prepared by a committee of Association members, each an expert in some area of the field under review. The breadth of educational research is suggested by the titles of separate issues: social background of education, organization and administration, legal basis of education, finance and business administration, school plant and equipment, teacher personnel, pupil personnel guidance and counseling, psychological tests and their uses, educational tests and their uses, growth and development of chil-

³ Harold B. Chapman, *Organized Research in Education*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1927; Walter S. Monroe and Others, *Ten Years of Educational Research, 1918-1927*. University of Illinois Bulletin, 1928. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1928.

dren, mental and physical health, the curriculum, general aspects of instruction, special methods and the psychology of elementary-school subjects, psychology and methods in high school and college, language and fine arts, fine and applied arts, the natural sciences and mathematics, the social studies, exceptional children and minority groups, methods of research and appraisal in education.

A single issue of the *Review* usually lists from five hundred to a thousand separate researches. The great majority of these have appeared in print—magazine articles, doctor's dissertations, official bulletins or reports, chapters or contributions to yearbooks, and other professional publications. Perusal of the index and bibliographies of the *Review* leave the impression that no subject or problem of American education has escaped examination by someone engaged in research.

That the methods of research have been applied to the study of almost every educational problem of the past twenty years and that there is a growing interest in and demand for educational research is attested by the response to the publication of the *Encyclopaedia of Educational Research*. However, close examination of the *Review* and the *Encyclopaedia* suggests serious limitations to be overcome if research is to be a vital factor in the development of education in the next two decades.

By far too great a portion of the published research in education is a by-product of other endeavor and is limited to unrelated minutiae of educational problems. Much of it is little more than descriptive recording of status or progress—not infrequently indifferent description. Some of it is little more than superficial analysis of trends of opinion, attitude, or practice. Some of it advances scarcely beyond the counting stage. There is too wide a gap between research at its best and much of its practice in education.

Great as has been the effort during the past thirty years, research in education still lags far behind research in industry and in agriculture. There are two fundamental reasons for this. One is the profit motive; the other is the lesser dependence of education upon the physical sciences. A third factor is the investment of the federal and state governments in agricultural research that has stemmed from the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890.

Industry has been quick to sense the worth of research and directly or indirectly can measure its results in increased profits. Beginning early in the 1900's a few companies organized separate research departments. By 1920 the number of industrial research laboratories had increased to about 300 and by 1940 to about 2,200. In the latter year, over 70,000 research workers were employed in industry, with an estimated annual

expenditure for research of about \$300,000,000.⁴ Similarly, the United States Department of Agriculture, working through the land-grant colleges, has brought to research in agriculture the organized effort of thousands of the ablest workers in the physical and biological sciences, thereby making research one of its major goals and accomplishments.

Compared with the organized research in industry and agriculture, research in education is still conducted for the most part by individuals who are paid chiefly for teaching or administration and who manage to steal a little time for research from their main job or from vacation time. The surprising thing is that so much has been accomplished and that some of it is of such high quality.

Pointing to the "lack of organized research" in the universities, the National Resources Planning Board voiced a criticism that applies with equal force to much of the research conducted in graduate schools of education.

University research is left largely to the initiative and direction of the individual professor. While most of the research carried on by industry, business, and Government is organized and directed to the solution of specific, immediate problems, a large part of the research in the universities is independent and unorganized, controlled and directed chiefly by the interests of the individual professor, and it is directed toward the solution of more basic and less immediate problems. The very emphasis on the importance of training research workers tends to lessen the emphasis on the type of research conducted. So long as the research gives the desired training in methods and technique it serves its most important purpose. Furthermore, the university as an institution is largely free from responsibility for solving any specific problems. . . . the research undertaken properly originates in the scholarly curiosity of the staff members and must be largely free and individual.⁵

That research in education has not attained the level of research in the physical sciences is not a cause for discouragement but a fact to be recognized. Actually education tends to be more dependent on the social sciences, just as agriculture finds its basis in the physical sciences. Recognition of this fact will tend to improve the techniques and methods of educational research in many of its important areas.

Workers in educational research will develop their own organization and procedure for improving their work. The growing dependence of leadership upon research will make administrators more critical of re-

⁴ National Resources Planning Board, *Industrial Research*, pp. 1, 19. Research, A National Resource, Vol. II. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

⁵ National Resources Planning Board, *Relation of the Federal Government to Research*, p. 176. Research, A National Resource, Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

search and by that very process improve its quality. One friendly critic of American education made these observations.

The question is thus raised as to what precisely constitutes research. The gathering of information—even though accurate—is not research. The massing of conglomerate descriptive material, so common in domestic science, in the social sciences, and in education, is not research. Unanalyzed and unanalyzable data, no matter how skilfully put together, do not constitute research; surveys are not research; reports are not research. . . .

What, then, is research? It is a quiet, painstaking effort on the part of an individual himself, not through someone hired by him, though intellectual co-operation is, of course, not barred, an effort, I say, to reach the truth, the severest that the human mind, with all available apparatus and resources, is capable of making at the moment. The subject must be serious or have serious implication; the object must be disinterested; no matter how closely the outcome may affect wealth, income, or appetite, the observer must preserve an objective attitude. In the physical and biological sciences, controls must be set up under the most rigorous conditions; predictability is vitally important, if practicable. . . .

The mere accumulation of measurements, of data, of facts (which may not really be facts after all) may be a worthless expenditure of time, energy, and money. To be sure, there are problems which are up to the present time susceptible of study only by the inductive method; but it is of the very essence of science that the investigator have an idea, though he hold ever so lightly to it. He must be ready to modify it or to drop it if the facts go against him but endless counting will produce no theory, no principle, no ideas. A very large part of the literature now emanating from departments of sociology, departments of education, social science committees, and educational commissions is absolutely without significance and without inspirational value. It is mainly superficial; its subjects are trivial; as a rule nothing is added to the results reached by the rule of thumb or the conclusions which would be reached by ordinary common sense.”⁶

The limitations of educational research that must be overcome if research is to play its full role in educational reconstruction may be summarized somewhat as follows: (a) too great a portion is restricted to problems of limited scope studied for limited periods; (b) thus far the chief energy invested in educational research is confined to fulfilling requirements for the doctor’s degree, which by its very nature can be little more than a limited training in research; (c) too frequently research is conceived as the function of an individual rather than of the total educational authority; (d) there is still woeful lack of organization for co-ordinating the work of many individuals over long periods of time with full provision for cultivating the resources of the individual; (e) while research must be fully free to seek truth, yet to be fully effective it must be closely co-

⁶ Abraham Flexner, *Universities*, pp. 125–27. New York: Oxford University Press, 1930.

ordinated with administration and supervision; and (f) in order that research may play the greater role that is needed, provision must be made for selecting and training for research the best minds among American youth. Out of the ranks of those who succeed will come a new generation of leaders in American life.

III. THE STATUS OF RESEARCH IN THE STRUCTURE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

One-third of a century covers the entire history of organized research effort in American public education. Some of the efforts have proved abortive. Some have flourished for a period and dropped back into routine effort or oblivion. Some have grown in usefulness and give promise of still larger achievement. Pending a comprehensive evaluation of these varied efforts, a brief review of the past experience and present status of organized research may be of some value to those who are introducing or expanding research units in educational systems.

1. Early Examples of Organized Research

The establishment of bureaus or similar organized units for research in city school systems came early in the second decade of the twentieth century: The Bureau of Records and Research, Rochester, New York, 1913; The Bureau of Reference and Research, New York City, 1913; The Department of Educational Investigation and Measurement, Boston, Massachusetts, 1914; Bureau of Research and Efficiency, Kansas City, Missouri, 1914; Department of Instructional Research, Detroit, 1914.

In state school systems, the earliest attempts at organized research were initiated by the Division of Tests and Measurements, Wisconsin, 1916; Specialist in Educational Measurements, New York, 1920; Division of Research and Surveys, Connecticut, 1923; Division of Reference and Service, Louisiana, 1925; Bureau of Statistics and Information, Georgia, 1925. Of these five pioneer agencies, two have survived and have grown in prestige and usefulness.⁷

Most of the earlier organized units for research in universities and teachers colleges were established to provide services of a research nature to schools. In 1926 Chapman found research bureaus in sixteen universities and in ten normal schools or teachers colleges. In the titles of these earlier bureaus, the words "service," "reference," "tests," and "measurements" appeared frequently. Some of these bureaus were engaged chiefly in service to local schools. Others, such as the Institute of Educational Research, Division of Psychology, Columbia University,

⁷ Harold B. Chapman, *Organized Research in Education*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University Press, 1927.

were engaged in research that reached school groups only indirectly through published reports. Other university bureaus established before 1926 that have made significant contributions to education were the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station and the California Institute of Child Welfare.

National and state educational associations have entered the field of organized research. Following World War I, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association undertook to create a permanent fund, the income from which should be used for research.⁸ The funds obtained fell far short of the goal set but the concepts underlying the effort should be re-examined. Preceding this move was established the Research Division of the National Education Association. Supplementing the research which it conducts directly, the Division exerts a considerable influence in promoting research and in the use of research conducted by others in its work with committees of the various departments of the National Education Association.

Similarly, state educational associations have, here and there, employed persons to give a part or all of their time to research, and have co-operated with other state agencies in promoting useful research. The New York State Teachers Association employs a director of studies who conducts various researches useful in promoting the work of the association and the cause of education. This office works independently of, yet in close co-operation with, the Research Division of the State Education Department. On occasion the Association publishes a monograph on research. Many illustrations are available of the contributions made by state educational associations in conducting and implementing research.

The United States Office of Education, authorized and established soon after the Civil War, was by the terms of its charter a potential research agency: "for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems." Through the preparation of its Biennial Survey, the Office has led to the standardization of recording and reporting of educational statistics, so that this country leads the world in the accuracy and completeness of its school accounting. Assuming that some of the facts about education which would be helpful in developing good schools in this country would come from the experience of

⁸ Randall J. Condon, "Report of Committee on Financing Educational Research," p. 265. *Official Report, Department of Superintendence, 1928*. Washington: Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1928.

other countries, commissioners of education have from the first published reports of foreign school systems and of educational trends abroad. In recent years the research activities of the Office have centered in national surveys of major problems, such as the *National Survey of Secondary Education*, the *National Survey of School Finance*, the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, the study of the *Deaf and the Hard-of-Hearing in the Occupational World*, the study of the *Local School Unit Organization in Ten States*, *Studies of State Departments of Education*, and others.

Probably the chief single stimulus to the development of educational research in this country was the psychological testing in the United States Army during World War I. This proved the first large-scale attempt to use psychological testing. Almost every young psychologist gained some experience in this branch of the service. Millions of young men gained their first acquaintance with testing in the Army. For a decade following the war, lay and educational literature featured discussion emanating from the Army's use of psychological testing. In World War II, educational research has found an even wider acceptance. Testing has been improved and its application to personnel work has gained wide recognition. The methods of research have been applied to improving and evaluating various educational procedures in the armed forces, to the study of attitudes and opinions both in the armed forces and among civilians, and to various other areas of the war effort. The knowledge gained and the research methods devised will influence the development of research in the postwar period.

2. Recent Developments in Organized Research

Some universities, such as Minnesota, are conducting organized programs of research designed to improve their internal administration, function, and curriculum.⁹ These studies of its own program may indirectly affect education at all levels and in all areas served by the university.

The Bureau of Educational Research at the Ohio State University is probably the outstanding illustration of a research unit in a publicly supported university that was created to serve the schools and colleges of the state. Started in 1921 it has continued to grow and prosper under three university administrations. Also, the Bureau now has its third director. Its staff co-operates in state-wide researches, conducts studies of concern to education everywhere, makes surveys or special studies requested by local school authorities, promotes research through the officials of

⁹ *Studies in Higher Education*. Biennial Report of the Committee on Educational Research, 1940-42. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1942.

schools and colleges, publishes a research bulletin and through state educational associations stimulates research and disseminates knowledge of the outcomes of research.¹⁰

A recent check of nearly two hundred college and university catalogues discloses nearly forty active bureaus of educational research. Five of these are in privately supported universities; the remainder are in publicly supported colleges and universities. During the past twenty years, more than twenty other college or university educational research bureaus have been discontinued. In addition to the bureaus devoted to educational research, other organized effort in universities or colleges is found in the form of educational and psychological clinics, child welfare institutes, and bureaus for collegiate or higher education research.¹¹

Among the educational research bureaus in state-supported universities which have survived through more than two decades are the following: Bureau of Co-operative Research, University of Indiana; the Bureau of Educational Service and the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station at the University of Iowa; the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois; and the Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, University of Michigan. Most of these have continued to grow regardless of changes in the administrative leadership of the bureau and of the university of which it is a part.

Teachers College, Columbia University, has engaged in a number of organized research activities. Two of these illustrate interesting variations in types of organization for research. The first was the Institute of Educational Research organized in three divisions—psychology, field studies, and experimental education. These were developed around the leadership of three individuals, namely Thorndike, Strayer, and Caldwell. Whether or not the Institute survives the passing of the men around whose genius it developed, its record of achievement holds lessons for those planning the future organization of educational research in privately supported universities.

The second illustration from Teachers College is the Metropolitan School Council organized and directed by Paul Mort. It consists of a group of superintendents of schools in the New York City metropolitan area who have organized under Mort's leadership for the extensive study of problems that concern their respective schools. The board of education of each participating school authorizes participation and contributes annually \$75 to \$300 to the support of the Council's work. While the

¹⁰ T. C. Holy and Others, "The Program of the Bureau of Educational Research," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXII (October 13, 1943), 171-73.

¹¹ John W. Paige, "Bureaus of Educational Research in Colleges and Universities." An unpublished paper. Albany, New York: State Education Department, 1944.

Council represents the work of only one member of the College faculty it involves the co-operation of a large group of school authorities in original and highly promising educational research. It is a new venture that may prove highly suggestive for the future development of research. The foregoing are merely suggestive of the variety of organization for research that has appeared in various graduate schools of education.

During the past twenty years there has been slow but steady growth in research as a function of state education departments. In the two years 1940 to 1942 twenty-two state departments employed one or more professional workers giving full or part time to research.¹² Analysis of the research programs of state departments over a ten-year period discloses increased use of tabulating and calculating machines and equipment for graphic analysis and photostatic work; greater co-operation with graduate schools, educational associations, and other state agencies and departments; conspicuous shifting of emphasis both in the problems studied and improvement in the character of the research conducted.

One of the conspicuous illustrations of the use of research as the basis of a state's educational program is found in Connecticut. The chief research officer of the Department of Education bears the title Director of Research and Planning. The Department has been especially successful in enlisting the activities of various organizations concerned with education. For example, the American Association of University Women made a study of boards of education in Connecticut. The League of Women Voters conducted a study of rural supervision, and the State Parent-Teachers Association studied teacher education in Connecticut. The American Association of University Women is now engaged in a study of public libraries. In all of these studies the Director of Research and Planning and other members of the staff of the Department of Education have worked with committees of the participating associations. One outcome of these co-operative studies has been to stimulate interest in education throughout the state and to bring laymen into a better understanding of the requirements of education they want the state to support.¹³

The New York State Education Department has in process of development the most ambitious research program among the states. Starting in 1920 with a staff of one professional worker and a clerical-stenographic staff of two, it had grown by 1940 to a staff of five professional and twelve clerical-stenographic workers. By 1944, the work of the regular staff had

¹² J. Cayce Morrison, "Research on the Rise," *Nation's Schools*, XXXII (September, 1943), 42.

¹³ Letter from Joseph A. Baer, Director, Division of Research and Planning, State of Connecticut, Department of Education, Hartford, July 15, 1944.

been augmented through a lump-sum appropriation of \$75,000. The program of research included extensive studies of the state's resources and needs for higher education, a pilot study in evaluating the state's program of health and physical education, studies looking to the extension or revision of the curriculum in the interest of youth who will not go to college, and other related researches.

In some respects the research program of the New York State Education Department provided a basis for the Board of Regents' planning for postwar education. In other respects it was necessary for the plans to be formulated on the basis of the best information available with the understanding that subsequent research might modify the recommendations or determine the priorities in developing the program. Approximately twenty separate researches were related to the planning for postwar higher education in this state. Significant among these studies were: industrial and occupational trends in New York; an inventory of facilities for postwar higher education; the migration of students for higher education to and from the state; the numbers and characteristics of youth wanting higher education; the opportunities for higher education in terms of curriculums, major subject, and final occupational preparation; counseling services available and needed; the types of jobs for which terminal technical education should be provided; the geography of higher education in New York State; and the financing of higher education.

Investigations in the field of secondary education included a study of the probable future development of enrolments in secondary schools of the state, modifications of curriculum needed for the 80 per cent of youth who heretofore have not gone on to higher institutions of learning, studies of youth who have graduated or left school and of the adjustment of rural secondary schools to the needs of youth during the war. The pilot study in health and physical education was especially concerned with dislocations of the program caused by the war and sought to develop techniques and procedures for evaluating the state's program in health as a basis for its further development after the war.

In some states, the research program of the department of education has experienced less favorable outcomes. The economic trends of the 1930's tended to squeeze out many of the earlier organized research units. For the future development of research it would be extremely useful to have an appraisal made of the work of educational research bureaus that fell by the wayside as compared with those that survived and continued to grow in spite of economic trends.

One factor that tended to operate against the success of some of the earlier bureaus was their apparent emphasis on the measurement of the efficiency of teaching through testing the outcome in terms of pupils'

knowledge. Another shortcoming appears in retrospect to have been a tendency to continue recurring services, such as the annual testing program, rather than to adapt programs and techniques to the changing problems confronting schools.

Among the cities that have maintained and increased educational research through the past twenty years are Baltimore, Detroit, and New York. As of June 30, 1944, their staffs, budgets, and programs were, briefly, as follows:

a. *Baltimore Bureau of Measurement, Statistics, and Research.* The staff consisted of a director, assistant director, two research assistants, and three stenographers. The current budget was approximately \$27,500. The program included city-wide testing surveys; developing new tests to fit new courses of study, co-operative conference projects with principals, supervisors, and others; collecting and reporting administrative statistics; assisting the business division in financial accounting studies; developing and conducting professional examinations for teachers; developing new techniques, machines, and devices; reporting and assisting in the publication program of the schools.¹⁴

b. *Detroit Department of Instructional Research and Department of Administrative Research and Statistics.* Each department is headed by a director who is responsible to an assistant superintendent. For the year ending June 30, 1944, in addition to the two assistant superintendents concerned and two directors, the research staff consisted of four professional workers and eight clerks and stenographers. The total operating budget was nearly \$40,000. The Department of Instructional Research supervises the city-wide educational testing program, makes subject-matter surveys, and conducts various experimental and evaluative studies. The Department of Administrative Research conducts researches in school membership, attendance, pupil-teacher ratios, teacher load, shifting school population, state appropriations, and similar subjects. In addition to the foregoing, research is conducted by various departments of the school system such as the Department of Guidance and Placement and the Psychological Clinic.¹⁵

c. *New York City Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics.* As of June 30, 1944, the staff consisted of one director, three assistant directors, five research assistants, two junior research assistants, six psychologists, eight teachers, and a clerical and stenographic staff of fifty persons. The bureau was organized in five divisions: tests and measurements, instruc-

¹⁴ Letter from John L. Stenquist, Director, Bureau of Measurement, Statistics, and Research, Baltimore, June 20, 1944.

¹⁵ Letter from Paul T. Rankin, Assistant Superintendent, Detroit Public Schools, June 22, 1944.

tional research, curriculum research, administrative research, and statistical research. In addition there were three service sections entitled, Reference and Library, Stenographic, Multigraphing and Mailing. The total budget of the bureau was \$240,071.98.¹⁶ In addition to the reference service, the bureau carries two recurring administrative functions for the school system as a whole, namely the preparation of the annual statistical report and the preparation of the annual school budget. Also, the division administers the psychological testing service in the schools and the various testing programs requested and approved. The department of curriculum research works largely through committees of teachers and supervisory officers; the assistant director in charge serves as secretary of the superintendent's curriculum council. The work of the bureau is further indicated in the titles of recently published researches, such as the following: "A Supplementary Guide for Scoring the Revised Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, Form L," "Check List for Reviewing a Reading Curriculum," "Grade 1A Reading Materials on the New York City Textbook List," "Individualization of Instruction in Reading," "Appraisal of Growth in Reading," "A Diagnostic Approach to the Reading Program," "Reading Readiness in the First Grade," "Determining Readiness for Reading," "New York Reading Readiness Inventory," and "New York Tests of Growth in Reading."

The educational associations of the United States have made and are making a significant contribution through synthesizing and disseminating the outcomes of research. Through yearbooks and similar publications they stimulate individuals to make studies and provide an outlet for their publications. At intervals they bring together the results of all the research on a subject of current interest. The worth of this service to American education is beyond our capacity to estimate, but without it the practice of education would be poor indeed.

Our concern is more particularly with the organized research conducted by associational effort and support. As previously noted, the chief effort is through the Research Division of the National Education Association. In addition to its contribution to the preparation of yearbooks and other work of the National Education Association the Division conducts research and publishes the results in the *Research Bulletin*. Usually an issue of the bulletin is given to reporting a single research. The titles of the last five issues suggest the type of the researches conducted: *Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America*; *Teachers Colleges after Two Years of War*; *Teachers' Salaries and the Public Welfare*; *High School*

¹⁶ Letter from Eugene A. Nifenecker, Director of Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics, New York City Schools, July 6, 1944.

Methods with Slow Learners; The Nation's Schools after a Year of War. From the very nature of its contact with schools, the Division's work is limited to researches that can be conducted chiefly through the questionnaire method or the analysis of published materials. The Division is under some pressure to further limit its effort to researches that directly promote the welfare of the teaching profession but, on the whole, has managed thus far to extend much of its effort to the issues of education as a whole.

IV. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION FOR NEEDED EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

To serve adequately the future needs of education, research must be greatly expanded. The work of the lone individual, useful as it may prove, will be as inadequate for the tasks ahead as is the work of the lone inventor in the realm of industrial research. There will be need always for pure research, but the problems of the next two or three decades will be so pressing that solutions must be found. Little will be gained by debating the relative merits of pure and applied research. Both will be needed and both may proceed in the same organization. Educational research will not expand in a vacuum.

In the light of the current status of educational research there are many questions to be asked and answered in charting the future development of its organization and administration.

1. State Educational Research

The most crucial need for educational research is in developing and administering state policy. Educators have strongly maintained the doctrine that education is a state function. But many of the states have failed to develop constructive, aggressive educational leadership. During the past decade, in a great national emergency, most of the states have come dangerously near to surrendering their responsibility for educational leadership to the Federal Government.

Looking to the future, the states can hope to exercise leadership only in so far as they base policy on a broad, firm foundation of research. How shall such research be organized and administered? The pattern will vary in different states.

In those states that maintain universities supported from public funds it is probable that the major research bureau will be set up in the university. Where the university is reasonably accessible to the department of education, such division of function seems appropriate. Even so, it is not clear that the department of education should be solely dependent on the university for all the research needed. A properly organized and com-

petently staffed research bureau in the department could supplement the work and increase the effectiveness of the university's bureau. Their respective programs should be properly co-ordinated and the two staffs should work as one. The department's research staff would work more closely with schools and on problems of immediate concern to the administration. It would assume chief responsibility for stimulating and helping to co-ordinate research and for disseminating the results of research. The university's research staff might properly take as its province those long-range studies involving more of the elements of pure research. At the same time it would contribute to the on-going program carried by the staff of the department of education.

In those states which do not have a state-supported university, research is likely to be more firmly established as a function of the department of education. The function of the research staffs will likely develop along the following lines:

- a) Conducting researches needed by the administration in formulating educational policy.
- b) Conducting a more or less continuing inquiry into the character and cost of education. (This might be stated as evaluating educational programs.)
- c) Stimulating and helping to co-ordinate research in the schools and colleges of the state.
- d) Working with state educational associations in defining areas or problems for research and in disseminating the findings of research.
- e) Assisting in planning and evaluating experimental programs.

As a rule, the state bureau will not duplicate a research that is being conducted by some other agency. Neither will it undertake a research that it can have done quite as well by some other educational agency in the state. It will seek the co-operation of other agencies that have the will and resources to conduct the research needed or desired. Beyond this there are many problems for which a solution is not immediately needed or the outcome of which is problematical that more properly lie within the province of an agency whose productivity is not so immediately subject to public scrutiny as is the work of publicly supported research bureaus.

State educational policy dovetails at many points with the policy of other departments of state government. As the processes of state government move from a political to a scientific basis, most state departments will tend to develop their own research bureaus. At first these will be crude, largely subordinated to and often confused with administration, but gradually they will tend to gain the status and the recognition now accorded to research as developed in the research bureaus or institutes of universities and in the better industrial research units. Here education

has the opportunity both to establish principles and precedents and to profit from co-operation with other state research agencies in the study of problems of mutual concern.

2. Local Educational Research Bureaus

Thus far, experience has not demonstrated conclusively the size of school system necessary to justify the creation of a position or bureau devoted exclusively to educational research.

The record of accomplishment of bureaus of research in large cities indicates that a city of a half million people is well justified in organizing a bureau of research with a professional staff representing certain broad areas of specialization such as administration, instruction, statistics, personnel. Similarly, the record of cities such as Schenectady, New York; Flint, Michigan; and Pasadena, California, indicates that cities of 100,000 or above can use profitably a research bureau staffed with two or more professional workers with adequate stenographic and clerical assistance. In small cities, as a rule, the research staff usually consists of one professional worker, sometimes with one professional assistant, a stenographer and one or more clerks. Frequently the research function is combined with some other such as statistics, instruction, curriculum, or guidance.

In light of the experience of the past twenty-five years a good case can be made for the following:

- a) In school systems in cities of less than 25,000 population at least one person thoroughly trained in educational research should be employed. He may give only a part of his time to stimulating, co-ordinating, and conducting research, but will disseminate the results of research among all members of the school staff.
- b) In school systems in cities of 25,000 to 100,000 population, at least one thoroughly qualified person should be employed full time as director or supervisor of research and in the larger school systems of the group he may use advantageously one or more full-time professional assistants.
- c) In city, county, or regional school systems serving populations of 100,000 or above, provision should be made in the research staff for broad areas of specialization. There is reason to believe that those cities which have thus far invested most in research will ultimately demonstrate the need for larger and more highly specialized staffs than are now anywhere available.
- d) At all levels the full-time professional staff should have the adequate support of clerical and stenographic help; and provision should be made for supplementing their work through temporary assignment of teachers and supervisors to the research bureau.

Whether the local system be large or small, the major functions of the research staff are to stimulate and co-ordinate research and to disseminate the results of research among the members of the professional staff

of the school system. Every teacher and official in the schools should be more or less continuously studying ways and means of improving his own work. At times such persons will need competent advice as to research techniques and methods and information concerning the outcomes of research conducted by others.

No school system, large or small, can employ all the research talent needed, because education is too highly specialized. From time to time, the research staff will need to call in specialists for consultation or employment for limited periods. The assistance of such highly specialized workers profits both the research and the teaching or administrative groups concerned.

Many of the problems confronting the research staffs of local school systems are common to many or all schools of the state. Therefore, it is important for local and state research bureaus to work together, to pool their efforts and the results of their labor.

3. National Educational Research

The research functions of the United States Office of Education should be greatly expanded. The various departments and agencies of the Federal Government afford one of the greatest laboratories or sources of research material to be found any place in the world. The United States Office of Education could render a service of inestimable value by creating opportunities for promising students in the graduate schools of universities to do graduate or postgraduate research in or through the work of the Federal Government. The Office might plan, stimulate, and conduct research that would describe and appraise educational programs and policies in the several states and in foreign countries. Within its resources, it should continue to conduct surveys of state and local school systems on request, and from time to time should disseminate information concerning America's schools through surveys or special studies on a national basis.

While many federal agencies are concerned with and in many cases administer educational research programs, it would appear desirable to require that their research be conducted either through the United States Office of Education or through contractual agreements with nongovernmental research agencies.

Since much of education in the United States is supported from funds other than those obtained through public taxation, there appears to be justification for national research agencies that are exempt from the restrictions usually imposed by the federal budget and that are free to examine any and all questions pertaining to education. One example of such an agency is the American Council on Education.

[The Council] represents 30 of the national associations in all fields of education, elementary, secondary, and higher, as well as 364 of the leading universities and colleges. It operates largely through its executive and planning committees and through a series of special committees to plan and carry on research in many special fields of education.

The Problems and Plans Committee of the Council consists of a group of the ablest men in education in America who carefully review, in quarterly meetings, the most vital needs of the country in research in education. Projects that have been endorsed by this Committee and approved by the Executive Committee have usually obtained adequate funds and have been actively prosecuted.

... Bringing together representatives of all levels of education, the Council has endeavored to co-ordinate them and maintain a constant survey of all of American education."¹⁷

4. Research through Educational Associations

Local associations can stimulate their members to keep abreast of new knowledge gained through research. Through committee organization they can conduct research needed by or useful to the local system. In larger school systems they can stimulate research through publishing the results of researches conducted by their members thereby contributing to their continuing education.

At the state level the contributions possible to local associations may be made in larger measure. The larger state association may profitably employ one or more persons thoroughly trained for research to conduct studies pertinent to the welfare and professional growth of its members. In such assignment, research will prosper in direct proportion to its contribution to education as a whole and its ability to work smoothly with other established research agencies. Through such co-ordination it can contribute greatly to disseminating the results of research and to stimulating a demand for more and better research.

At the national level two types of contribution, thoroughly tested, admit of further improvement and larger service to education. One is the yearbook. The other is the review of research. Yearbook committees are dependent in large measure on the achievement of individual committee members. In general, there is need for more critical selection and appraisal of research materials; and for interpreting the outcomes of research to the profession at large. The American Educational Research Association has the direct responsibility for stimulating and guiding the improvement of the processes of research in education. Its membership comprises most of the men and women who conduct research and who train others for work in research. Through its plan for revision of the

¹⁷ National Resources Planning Board, *Relation of the Federal Government to Research*, *op. cit.*, p. 181.

Encyclopedia of Educational Research, as well as through its editorial board, the Association has the organization to stimulate and gradually to achieve through associational effort a better understanding of what constitutes research. During the next twenty years the Association will surely contribute greatly to improving the theory and practice of research in American education.

5. Education and Research in Related Fields

Education has its roots in many of the pure and applied sciences and so must depend in large measure on the research in those fields. In studying the sources of financial support for public education, educational research is on common ground with all research directed to the study of the financial support of government. In the study of lighting and ventilating school buildings, educational research shares an area of responsibility with research in public health departments, and both must lean heavily on industrial research such as that on lighting in the laboratories of the General Electric Company at Cleveland, Ohio. Similarly educational research supplements rather than replaces fundamental research in such disciplines as psychology, sociology, and anthropology. Research in education will be more effective if those responsible for its administration will seek to enlist the active support of other agencies in related fields in the study of problems pertinent to improving educational theory and practice.

6. Co-ordination of Educational Research

One of the largest and most important problems confronting those responsible for directing research in the reconstruction of education is to obtain an effective co-ordination of the efforts of all individuals and agencies engaged in educational research. At the national level this would involve a closer co-ordination of the efforts of the United States Office of Education, the American Council on Education, the National Education Association and its several departments, and of such independent associations as the National Society for the Study of Education. With increasing federal support of education, the chief responsibility for helping to co-ordinate research will pass to the United States Office of Education. It is important that the principles governing its organization and extended functions for research be carefully defined and widely understood.

At the local and state levels, the chief agency for co-ordinating research should be in the state departments of education. Through its central office, each state department can bring together those interested in a particular area or problem, can keep all informed as to research in progress, and can provide, through publication or otherwise, for disseminating the results of research.

V. PERSONNEL FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

In the reconstruction of education during the next twenty years there will be a large increase in the number of persons assigned to educational research. This will be true of those giving full time to research and those giving part time. To what extent should educational research be looked upon as a life career? To what extent should it be considered a stepping stone to administration and teaching? With the increased numbers employed, more attention will be given to establishing standards for education, selection, and promotion of research workers. Similarly, increased attention will be given to the internal organization of research bureaus and their relation to other parts of the educational structure.

1. Standards Set by Public Authorities

A committee on classification of civil services in the state of New York recommended two positions in educational research, namely, director of research and educational research assistant. The latter title was later changed to "associate education supervisor (research)." The following statements illustrate the differentiation in qualifications between two salary levels.

Graduation from an institution of recognized standing with graduate study leading to an advanced degree, preferably a doctorate, representative of specialization in educational research and administration, and seven years of experience in educational research of which two years shall have involved supervisory responsibility, or any equivalent combination of education and experience; thorough knowledge of modern developments and trends in education; ability to lay out work for a staff of assistants dealing with educational problems, to direct them in their work, and to get them to work together effectively; initiative; resourcefulness; superior judgment; and good address.

Graduation from an institution of recognized standing with graduate study leading to an advanced degree, preferably a doctorate, representative of specialization in educational research, and five years of experience in the field of education, of which two years shall have been devoted to research in administrative or statistical problems, or any equivalent combination of education and experience; thorough knowledge of the principles and practices of research in educational fields; ability to secure and tabulate pertinent educational data, and to prepare interpretative reports thereon; accuracy; thoroughness; and good judgment.¹⁸

In 1937, the Board of Examiners of the New York City schools announced examinations for three types of positions in the Bureau of Ref-

¹⁸ *Report of the Joint Legislative Committee on Classification of Positions in the Civil Service*, pp. 326, 366. Legislative Document No. 55, 1932. Albany, New York: State of New York, 1932.

erence, Research, and Statistics. These were respectively: assistant director, research assistant, and junior research assistant. At the higher level three positions were created. Candidates were admitted to examination for one position only. The function of assistant directors, common to all positions, was stated. In addition, the specific functions of each position were defined. The following paragraphs illustrate the different areas of specialization as defined by the Board of Examiners:

The Division of Tests and Measurements is concerned with: the administration of tests and measurements for the appraisal of instructional results in city-wide, district, or individual elementary- and secondary-school projects; the grading and classification of pupils; the appraisal of organization and procedures in specialized projects; the selection, consideration, and standardization of tests and measurements including the experimental tryout of such tests; the evaluation of available standardized tests; the determination of local norms; the consideration of means and devices for measuring various factors or situations other than subject achievement; advisory service; training teachers to act as local examiners; the conduct of district conferences and teacher extension courses; the preparation of bulletins and bibliographies as directed.

The Division of Curriculum Research is concerned with: a continuous program of research related to, or involved in, curriculum development in the elementary and secondary schools; the encouragement and supervision of independent and local experimentation, the collaboration with other divisions of the bureau in general functional service; more specifically, the formulation of statements of fundamental curriculum issues and principles. This division seeks to determine and appraise current trends in curriculum development; to evaluate and appraise present curriculum practices in New York City; to conduct experiments in the selection and organization of instructional material and activities; to study pupils' interests, etc.¹⁹

The standards for the three levels of positions were stated in terms of age, general education, specified required courses, and character and length of experience.

In general it may be said that the limited opportunities for placement and permanent employment in positions devoted to educational research have militated against the development of programs for the education of research workers.

2. Procedures for Selecting Research Workers

In the New York State Education Department when a new position is created or an old one is to be filled, the Civil Service Department announces the examination and restates the standards of eligibility in ac-

¹⁹ Mimeographed announcement of "Examination for license as assistant director in the Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics," Board of Examiners, New York City, October 1, 1938.

cord with the provisions of the law defining the position. The Education Department may make provisional appointment. The examination conducted by the Civil Service Department may be oral, written, or both, or the rating may be given on the basis of experience and education.

In establishing lists for the several research positions created in the Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics in the New York City schools in 1937, the Board of Examiners set a comprehensive and searching examination consisting of three parts: the written, the oral, and the statement of record. The written examination covered the duties of the position, psychological and educational measurements, educational research and experimental education, diagnostic and remedial techniques, curriculum construction, and allied fields. In addition to the basic or general written test, each candidate wrote on a specific test in the area of his specialization. The interview test emphasized oral English, mental equipment and responsiveness, professional competence, and personal fitness. Examination of the record included a quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the candidate's accomplishments in research. In preparing and conducting these examinations, the Board of Examiners obtained the assistance of leaders in educational research.²⁰

No doubt experience will demonstrate the value and suggest improvements of the examination procedure in selecting research workers. The experience of New York State and of New York City have been described at some length as illustrative of large-scale attempts to define positions and select the best possible candidates through competitive examinations. There may be better means of recruiting research workers.

For many years, the research laboratories of the General Electric Company recruited research assistants for summer employment from the recent graduates of the universities and especially from among those who had completed the requirements for the doctorate. In no case was any one of these assistants advanced directly to permanent employment. At the close of the season, they returned to school or went to other employment. They might be recalled in succeeding summers for temporary employment. From the ranks of those who made good in the summer employment and in other positions after completing their graduate study have been recruited many of the regular employees of the General Electric Research Laboratories.

Some years ago the New York State Department of Finance and Taxation created four research fellowships to be assigned to outstanding persons recommended by departments of economics in leading universities. The general plan as set forth by the State Tax Commission is given in the

²⁰ New York City, Board of Examiners, *ibid.*, p. 3.

following paragraphs from the foreword to the second report. Fourteen monographs were published.

The Bureau of Research of the Tax Commission now has four positions entitled research investigators which are treated as fellowships in taxation, one at each of the four universities, Columbia, Cornell, New York University, and Yale. This arrangement enables the state to secure at a nominal expense the services of an exceptionally matured student of economics backed by the immediate interest of the various professors. The report which he makes to the department constitutes his doctoral dissertation. By this arrangement the state undoubtedly receives per dollar several times as great a return as though it attempted to build up a permanent staff in Albany to make the same class of investigations. Full discretion, of course, is left to the university in the selection of the graduate student and in maintaining the standard of work at the level required for the doctor's degree. The only limitation imposed by the Tax Commission is that the study is to be one in the field of taxation to be selected by the student and the professors from a list submitted by the Tax Commission.

One of the reasons for this arrangement is the conviction that greater advantage should be taken of the resources of our institutions of higher learning by our agencies of government than has hitherto been the case, and the hope that this departure may be adopted throughout the entire field of public activity.²¹

Some system of postdoctoral fellowships or of internship should prove a useful means of co-ordinating the resources for research in universities with the resources and needs of school systems, state and local, public and private.

3. The External Organization of Research Bureaus

Judging from the variety of titles applied to workers and units, the organization of educational research is still in the evolving stage.

Certain principles appear to be emerging. These may be tentatively stated as follows:

- a) The head of the research unit should be responsible directly to the chief administrative officer of the school or school system.
- b) The titles, salaries, and professional qualifications of the head of research and of the several research workers should be on a level with other workers of comparable grade in the school system.
- c) The relations between the research and the administration staffs should be such that the latter will participate in defining problems, be consulted in the development of the research projects, and assist in interpreting the results.
- d) There should be a permanent staff of persons thoroughly competent in educational research, sufficient to carry at least half of the total load of organized research required.

²¹ Ralph Theodore Compton, *Fiscal Problems of Rural Decline*, p. 3. Special Report of State Tax Commission, No. 2, 1929. Albany, New York: State Tax Commission, 1929.

The regular staff should be supplemented by persons employed for limited periods. These may be members of the teaching or supervisory staff assigned part time or full time for limited periods or for specific projects; or they may be persons brought in on leave of absence from other schools or colleges, or they may be young persons serving an internship in research.

However the research unit is set up, the research staff will conduct only part of the total program of research. Therefore, provision must be made at all levels for co-ordinating the work of the research bureau with the operational research carried by administrative bureaus.

For the most part, educational research staffs will be working on problems that concern one or more administrative units. The research staff has no responsibility for administering the outcomes of its labor. Therefore, in the final analysis, the success of the research staff is measured in terms of its ability to produce materials that others can use. This makes it exceedingly important that those who will use the product shall have opportunity to participate in defining the problem to be studied and that they be kept in close touch with the research as it develops.

There are no hard and fast lines between the research that will be conducted by the research staff and those studies which every well-administered bureau is more or less continuously conducting to improve its own service. However, as a rule, the research bureau will be concerned with discovering and verifying new facts, principles, techniques, and methods. When a research technique becomes part of the recurring service of the school system or institution, it should be transferred to an administrative bureau or division.

In terms of the internal organization of personnel, most bureaus of educational research will fall in one of the following types:

A director or head thoroughly grounded in the theory and practice of education, with training and experience in the methods of educational research, with one or more assistants of the same general preparation, although they may tend to specialize through some division of labor.

A staff selected or organized in terms of broad, general areas of specialization, such as Detroit's two separate departments of Instructional Research and Administrative Research and Statistics, and the five divisions of New York City's Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics—namely, Tests and Measurements, Curriculum, Instruction, Administration, and Statistics.

A staff organized in terms of functional specialization. This is illustrated in the organization of the Bureau of Educational Research of the Ohio State University. In addition to its director, the Bureau's staff includes the following divisions: accomplishment tests, appointments, curriculum, editorial, personnel, radio, reference, survey, and teaching aids. To extend its services in fields not adequately covered in the foregoing areas of specialization, the Bureau draws on the faculty of the university. Through the regular administra-

tive channels, a professor may be assigned to the Bureau for a limited period, full or part time, or for a specified research project.

Experience thus far indicates the need for two types of professional talent in every bureau of educational research. One is the person of broad general education and experience, acquainted with and proficient in the use of the common techniques and methods of research. The other type needed is the specialist, the person who knows more of the subject or problem in question than does anyone else in the staff of the school or institution. As research staffs grow, there will be a tendency to develop broad areas of specialization. This will find expression both in the selection of personnel and in the assignment of their work. But it will always be true that no research bureau can hope to have on its regular staff all of the specialized talent that will be needed. For this reason, budgets for educational research bureaus should contain provision for the employment of specialists for limited periods and for specified researches.

Many of the problems confronting educational leadership both state and local are so broad and complex that talent in many specialized areas is needed in their study. As a rule the entire staff should participate in the early stages of planning the research. When the project has been thoroughly examined by the staff, a single individual may be assigned responsibility for outlining the research, suggesting the possible or desirable division of labor. Ultimately the total program is broken down into projects which are assigned to individuals, who in turn bring to bear on their specific assignment all the initiative, knowledge, and creative genius they can command. As the specific project takes on new shape or meaning, its sponsor refers back to his colleagues and so profits from their different disciplines and points of view. The administration of research must seek constantly the best possible balance between the individualistic or strong-man theory and the co-operative or group theory of large-scale research.

VI. CONCLUSION

Looking to the future, education will be characterized by more rigorous thinking, bold experimentation, and scientific appraisal. To attain these characteristics, educational leadership will draw more and more on research.

CHAPTER IX

ORGANIZATION OF PLANNING FOR EDUCATION

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Planning is by no means a new idea in America. In many respects it is as old as the nation and is so inseparably related to our democratic form of government that it may be considered an essential of democracy.

The able citizens who met to draw up a constitution for the new nation were interested in planning. They faced the almost insurmountable problem of planning for the establishment, organization, and operation of a nation. That they planned wisely and well is evidenced by the fact that the plan which they then formulated has served so satisfactorily, with only a few basic amendments, for the guidance of a great and growing nation over a period of more than a century and a half.

In a democracy planning emerges from the hopes and aspirations of the people who live in a civilization in which change seems to be inevitable. The people and their leaders are constantly faced with problems. The responsibility for working out a solution to these problems becomes a responsibility of the people—not just of a group of leaders as in an authoritarian state. If the problems are to be solved, a solution must be planned; it will seldom just happen.

We in modern America are in better position to plan a solution to our problems than man has ever been before. When man does not understand his environment he is in no position to improve it. When he understands his environment he is in position to work out a plan for controlling it for his own benefit, or for adjusting his own activities so that he will no longer be a victim of his environment. We in America have the necessary knowledge to plan improved ways of living for ourselves and our posterity.

In the early history of this nation, the need for careful and comprehensive educational planning was not as obvious as it is today. Communities were small, buildings and the curriculum were simple, and many

of the related social services had not been developed. Today, however, the planning of an adequate educational program is a complex process—so complex that it challenges the best abilities of the ablest minds. If educators do not take the leadership in planning a desirable program, there are numerous other groups and individuals with sharply conflicting interests which will seize the opportunity to shape the program to their own way of thinking. We are certain to have educational changes instituted by competing pressure groups—some good and some bad—unless we develop an adequate program for planning improvements in terms of the educational needs of the people.

The process of planning in education is basically the same as the process of planning for any other phase of life. It is based on the same principles and utilizes essentially the same processes, with adjustments to educational conditions and needs. It encounters many of the same difficulties and, particularly, the basic difficulty of using the processes of democracy efficiently to assure significant and socially desirable outcomes.

Present-day planning in education is conceived of as a group responsibility. It corresponds closely to the need for co-operative development in instructional programs on all levels. Those participating in the program are led to discover problems with which schools and communities are grappling and to work out together their own expression of appropriate action in which the maximum numbers can participate. Under such circumstances planning provides a medium for developing understandings and improving working relationships among those who are concerned with community and state educational programs.

Closely identified with the co-operative enterprise is the psychological phenomenon of "expectation" which normally stimulates the effort to bring about improvements. The attitudes and behavior of peoples are influenced by the nature of the expectation which may be built up by joining a common cause. If proposals have been formulated and approved by those affected by them, anticipation in itself is conducive to improved action. An educational program improves in quality as the institution and its students build expectations of a better institution. Their confidence and faith in the future permeates even the present. Moreover, experience in democratic planning inspires trust and increases understanding among different peoples, ideologies, and interests; and the evils of pressure-group action are thereby lessened. Increasing assurance and trust will emerge through the clarification of future courses of action on the part of the individuals or the agencies involved. Thus, the readiness of responsible persons for the future is the signal contribution of co-operative planning.

Obviously, the interests and needs of other groups should be recognized as courses of action are formulated for education. Through individual or group interaction opportunity is provided for sources of conflict to be identified and better understood, thereby reducing obstacles which might become more serious when the plan is put into action. The very act of analyzing and appraising present needs will reveal points at which existing practices and services may be modified and the potential conflicts of the future averted or at least reduced.

Where there is no planning, crises determine expedient courses of action without choice. *Laissez faire* encourages imposition of autocratic influences to indicate the policies and conditions of service. On the other hand, if basic plans are formulated, the people may so arrange for their future that individual choice and freedom will be enhanced. The guides to the building of policies and programs are essentially constant whether the expected outcomes are to be defined in terms of individual or group responsibility.

I. UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Without careful and intelligent planning at all levels—local, state, and national, the fullest use of America's cultural and economic resources cannot be realized for education. As community life has become more complicated, society has demanded more services from an increasing number of agencies. Let the civic planner review the directory of a typical community—schools, churches, civic organizations, and municipal departments—and he will find that all are serving some educational interests and needs. A true community school can best be developed by utilizing all such community resources. Maximum utilization of such resources and optimum development of any educational program require careful planning. If educational planning is to be successful and is to attain maximum results it must be based on and grow out of certain fundamental principles which should be clearly recognized and fully utilized. Among the most important of these principles are the following:

- 1) *Educational planning must be recognized as one aspect of the general problem of community, state, and national planning.* Educators must recognize that planning an educational system involves consideration for all aspects of life and of government. Successful educational planning, therefore, cannot be carried on in isolation, but must be properly related to and integrated with other planning programs. For example, the location of school buildings is affected by zoning ordinances, highways, and other local conditions.
- 2) *One phase of educational planning should provide the basis for organized research; another phase should be built on and utilize fully the results of such research.* Research is basic to planning. There can be no effective planning except as the results of research are utilized. However, research itself must be

planned if it is to be effective. It is not always safe to rely on the facts which are available. The proper procedure is to determine what facts will be needed and then to develop a program for assuring that those facts will be available when needed and in such form that they can be utilized effectively.

- 3) *Educational planning must be a continuous process requiring constant adaptation of plans to emerging needs.* In a rapidly changing civilization, planning is not a process which can be undertaken one year with the thought that the remaining years will be devoted to carrying out the plans. There will undoubtedly be periods when more attention will be given to the development of new plans or to the revision of old plans than at other periods, but the most successful planning requires continuous research and study and periodic revision on the basis of evidence which is constantly being accumulated.

Crises in economic and social life have made it necessary at times to shift rapidly from certain projects and plans to others. Great migrations of peoples, changes in habits, tastes, and values emphasize the importance of continuous planning to insure flexibility of programs and adaptability of objectives. Industrial and employment changes may necessitate modification in general community outlook. Plans which remain static may generate repression and frustration among the people. Many long-term proposals seem to be based on the assumption that chosen predictions may be quite dependable. But these predictions do not always hold true. It is when the need for continuous reflection and searching for adaptation of ideas to new evidence is recognized that long-time planning furnishes the perspective that may be needed on every occasion.

- 4) *Satisfactory results can be attained only when definite provision is made within the educational organization for planning.* There must be a definite plan for planning. School leaders have done quite a bit of talking about planning, but so far the results have been all too limited because too few state and local school systems and educational institutions have made any definite provision in their organization for planning. Definite planning responsibilities must be assigned to appropriate members of the staff in accordance with interest, organizational responsibility, and ability to contribute.

The precedent for developing an organization for planning has been firmly established in the United States Public Health Service, the Department of Agriculture, and large industrial enterprises. Time, facilities, and human resources are marshalled for projecting the basic policies and plans into the future. Education, whether it be the elementary, secondary, or higher state school system, must direct its energy toward the searching task of discovering its major responsibilities and furnishing the facilities for future needs. Movements in education reveal a growing recognition of the need for organizing time, finance, and personnel to deal with pressing needs and problems of the total educational program.

- 5) *The planning procedure should be carefully formulated and systematically carried out.* In order to facilitate the work of a planning group, the organization must appraise its resources and establish the best possible conditions for the work to be done. Very early in the deliberations of the group the assignment

of responsibilities to individuals and subcommittees should be worked out. Each, in turn, should analyze its own functions and procedures in terms of sequence of effort and limit of time. Before committee action can go far, clarity of purpose and responsibility must be determined, for only as communication of plans and ideas and interaction within the group become efficient, can the program be converted quickly into action. As soon as proposals and detailed studies are relayed to the larger planning organization, procedure for action may be initiated. When persons and working groups assume obligations for pointing out strengths and weaknesses in the approach to individual studies, much valuable information will be gained.

- 6) *Planning, to be functional, must be realistic and practical but should not be needlessly limited by existing situations.* Planning must face the situation as it exists and project logical and practical next steps as well as ultimate goals. There is always the two-fold danger that the group responsible for planning may get too far away from reality and submit proposals that are far ahead of the times and therefore considered impractical, or that they may become so conscious of the handicaps and limitations of existing conditions that they will hesitate to propose steps and objectives which are essential to progress.

An important principle of program building calls for early identification of conditions and regulations which may restrict developmental efforts. The inhibiting influence may exist in the form of pressure groups, economic hazards, community customs, or legislative enactments. Be what they may, these restrictions should be selected very soon for group consideration. If the restrictive influences cannot be eliminated, the future study, reflection, and planning should be tempered accordingly. The political strategist, the civic planner, or the community realist will first inquire into the nature of these barriers and then decide upon the values that must be achieved in spite of the obstacles to a sound program.

- 7) *Educational planning should involve the active and continuing participation of all interested groups and organizations.* In a democracy the people are responsible for the schools and, in the final analysis, must approve the scope and content of the educational program. It is essential, therefore, that they be given opportunity to participate in the development of that program. With the increasing need for co-ordinating related educational services, the function of planning must involve many different interests beyond the confines of the school. Parents and other laymen representing community interests are logically in a position to suggest more effective ways of utilizing the educational resources available.¹ Obviously the technical details will need to be worked out by the professionally trained personnel, but the broad policies should be understood and approved by the supporting public, including the organizations whose co-operation will be needed in carrying out the program. The plan should be so developed that each of these groups can have an active part in

¹ *Some Considerations in Educational Planning for Urban Communities.* United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 66, 1943. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943.

some phase of the planning. When organized on this basis, educational planning affords an excellent opportunity for democracy to function in a manner that will greatly benefit both the school program and the public.

- 8) *The content and scope of educational planning are determined by the needs of the individuals and groups to be served.* Education has certain functions to perform. It cannot solve all of the problems of society or meet all of the needs of civilization. The services which are the proper responsibility of any educational organization can be determined by careful analysis of the needs of the groups to be served, and plans can then be projected for adequately providing those services. It is therefore apparent that the content and scope of planning in a local school system will differ somewhat from, although still be related to, educational planning at the state level, within institutions of higher learning, or under the auspices of such an agency as the United States Office of Education.
- 9) *Educational planning should be organized to utilize the services of specialists, and yet to avoid the possibility of domination by specialists.* Educational planning should be carried out under the guidance of leaders representing the educational organization concerned, with the co-operation of any groups that are prepared to make a useful contribution. It is important, however, that the co-operating experts should not direct their energies to the development of a planning program of their own. For example, planning should expect to utilize the services of various classes of specialists, but in no case should the planning program be directed by a specialist group.

In the planning process the specialist may be appropriately considered a resource person whose skills, knowledge, and general disposition make him a valuable person in working co-operatively with other individuals in defining the general problem and in formulating courses of action appropriate to its solution. He may contribute to the forces which move a group to action—which set forces free within the group to bring about a consummation of action. If the group is genuinely concerned about the direction and development of the program, the specialist within the group or resource person invited on a consultant basis should recognize that his membership status does not differ from others. It is expected he will serve as a working member, raise questions, and be questioned, voice criticism and suggestions, approval and disapproval of plans in light of the fundamental purposes for which the group has been selected. Thus, it may be said that group planning has created a clearly defined role for the specialist. Misner maintains that “his contributions have value only to the extent that they are functionally related to the needs and purposes of many people.”²

- 10) *The planning program should provide opportunity for all persons and groups affected by educational planning to understand and appreciate the value of the objectives, procedures, and recommendations.*

² “Co-operation in Administration and Supervision,” *Co-operation: Principles and Practices*, p. 86. Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association, 1938.

Careful appraisal of tentative courses of action involved in the plan should be solicited from those affected by the proposals. Reconsideration in the light of critical observations may provide some clues for implementing various features of the proposed program. Convincing or reassuring large groups that the proposal is sound frequently proves to be a difficult problem. Especially may community acceptance become less likely if the economic or social conditions which prompted the planning should be materially improved. It is frequently to be observed that zeal for change subsides as problems become less pressing. In other instances, the difficulty of making proposed changes is a deterrent. Griffith describes another source of obstruction to community progress: "The changes are such that, if the necessary adjustments are relatively simple, they would be practicable politically; if they prove to be complex and obscure, I doubt their acceptability, because of the violence of the struggle response on the part of the special interests unfavorably affected thereby."³ In every community there is a nucleus of community-minded citizens organized as open forums, informal discussion groups, and clubs, seeking facts and remedies to deal with local, state, or national problems. These potential planners provide important media for interpreting the proposed program and for building community acceptance thereof.

- 11) *Provision for continuing evaluation of the planning process is basic to the success of the program.* Frequent evaluation tends to improve the work of an individual or group tremendously in revealing the success with which it has met and the difficulties still to be overcome. Through the utilization of evaluative evidence, some assurance is given that plans and procedures are readily adjusted to immediate needs. Future action too may be more intelligently arranged by reference to the evidence concerning current achievements.
- 12) *Follow-up of the outcomes furnishes helpful information for appraising and modifying future action.* The importance of basic studies of the effects of an educational program is commonly accepted as an essential of sound administration. Obviously the planners need data to confirm the validity and practicability of their procedures. The study of outcomes in the light of the fulfillment of a goal offers the evidence that may be essential for fulfilling future needs in education.

II. OBSTACLES TO EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Since successful educational planning requires the co-operation of all concerned, the interests, values, and purposes to be served must be clearly stated and skilfully integrated into a program of action which all are willing to follow until it can be tested. Frequently such action is hindered by the attitude or behavior of certain planners or groups, whose peculiar interests are not entirely in accord, or by certain conditions. These natural responses to planning result in obstacles that need to be recognized so they can be overcome or avoided. Some of the major obstacles are here listed.

³ *Education for Victory*, II (October 15, 1943), 21.

a. *Tendency To Protect Vested Interests.* The process of planning entails careful thinking and serious study by people who are thoroughly convinced that together they can find a solution to a problem they all regard as important. As soon as it becomes obvious that a traditional position will need to be abandoned, an entrenched interest eliminated, or a valued influence discounted, the individuals or minorities affected may attempt to block further study and action. The development, maintenance, and operation of duplicating educational facilities under a number of public agencies is a familiar illustration of the inability of community-wide interests to share in building a thoroughly effective educational service in terms of the best interests of children, youth, and adults.⁴

b. *The Vitiating Effects of Propaganda.* Efficient programs of propaganda discourage critical searches for reliable evidence and basic information. Planning at this point encounters the hazard of formulating courses of action incompatible with the conditions enveloping the problem. With increasing finesse, certain sources of data are being continuously discounted by vested interests as a technique for protecting special privileges. Unfortunately, public school systems and state departments of education have not always been in position to secure the kind of data essential to the popularizing of their plans. In many instances appropriate techniques for collecting data have not been employed. Moreover, educational systems generally have too limited research services and resources at their command.

c. *Development of Self-perpetuating Planning Groups.* Some groups charged with policy-formulating responsibilities destroy their own effectiveness by devoting themselves too much to the perpetuation of the services or interests of their members. Under some circumstances the continued exercise of important functions by an established group tends to distort perspective and judgment in relation to the purposes for which the group was originally organized. For example, a state commission on education enlisted the services of a competent planning group as a counseling agency concerning state-wide policies in instructional improvement. As this counseling body continued through a period of years with unchanged membership, there was some questioning of its policies from time to time by representatives of public schools and colleges within the state. This resulted in a manifestation of resentment in the planning group as it attempted to protect and continue policies it had formulated years before to meet conditions which prevailed then but which no longer existed.

⁴ J. B. Edmonson. "Plans for an Improved Social Life," *Social Change and Education*, pp. 64-78. Thirteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1935.

d. Rigid Adherence to Particular Policies in Planning. A rigidly defined program of action can contribute as much to the destruction of unity and purpose in our educational program as can a philosophy of laissez faire in which no planning is done. A peculiar motivation sometimes causes groups to insist that a program either be carried out in a certain manner or dropped entirely. Frequently certain social taboos or attitudes tend to isolate crucial aspects of a problem as "untouchable," as something which cannot even be considered. "Let its advocates assume personal responsibility for increasing the effectiveness of 'that' service," is the sentiment sometimes expressed by the planners. Laissez faire is accepted as the most prudent policy. An equally impractical approach, that of insisting upon the thorough planning of every projected activity regardless of its relevance or importance, also proves to be a stumbling block for many planning groups.

e. Inability To Modify Initial Goals. Even though education is designed to develop a citizen with adaptability, that particular quality is frequently lacking in educational planning. Perhaps the great emphasis which the teacher normally places on achieving a goal has influenced planning groups to continue study and analysis of a problem beyond the point of diminishing returns. There is great need for groups to be alert to the need for modifying goals in terms of new evidence collected. An example in point was recently reported in a well-known magazine. While a study commission was engaged in a survey of the educational needs of youth in a certain community, the board of education adopted the policy of encouraging students to accept jobs which required them to work during the school day. A number of conditions were uncovered as the study progressed that warranted a change in the original goals of the commission. The incessant demands to complete the original assignment ended in disillusionment when the participants ultimately realized that all possibilities for action were completely blocked.

f. Interaction Handicapped by Position or "Rank" of Participants. At its highest levels, planning represents the best in human co-operation and interaction. The unfavorable influences of relationships involving the position and rank of participants which have emerged in educational organization sometimes impede the freest flow of ideas among representative members of planning groups. In some instances the historical development of the conventional line and staff administrative organization has accentuated the prestige values attached to positions on certain administrative levels. A special kind of prestige growing out of a title, a degree, or an achievement, may likewise set up within the group an opportunity for individual members to speak with a tone of authority which the conditions do not justify. The psychological subtleties of planning are

often temptations to seek ready-made answers from an authority. When there is an unwarranted deference to a member with the status of authority, other participants who rely too greatly on his judgment become passive members of the planning organization. It is important that all members participate actively in the process of planning in order that a high quality of co-operative action may be assured.

III. TECHNIQUES IN THE ORGANIZATION OF PLANNING

While there is no one standard of organization or procedure in educational planning which can be applied in all situations, the guiding principles are essentially the same for all defensible planning programs. In general, the organization and procedures will have many similarities, and in all educational situations several characteristic phases of the planning process will need to be taken into consideration.

1. Analysis of Planning Procedure

- 1) *Tentatively stating the objectives.* This will involve considerable study and research, not only in education as such, but also in consideration of the role of education in a democracy and in civilization in general. What kind of a civilization do we want and what kind of an educational program will it take to help to bring about the desired improvements? More specifically, what should be the objectives of education to meet the educational needs of the people in the American community, state, or nation?
- 2) *Determining the present status.* Present status has implications for planning which are both general and specific. It will, therefore, be necessary to develop an adequate plan for assembling and interpreting the data regarding each major aspect of education in the given situation and for discovering existing interrelationships. The study and research made in connection with this aspect of planning will be made with consideration for both the present needs and the proposed objectives.
- 3) *Formulating a specific program of objectives.* A definition of the specific objectives to meet the needs of the people will grow out of a study of the present status of the educational program and of the educational services being rendered by other agencies in the community, viewing each specific need with reference to the tentative statement of general objectives. The specific objectives agreed upon will serve as a guide to the steps which are to follow.
- 4) *Determining a course of action.* This will define the steps which need to be taken to attain the objectives. These steps should be stated in specific and definite terms. In many cases the attainment of any objective will require more than one step. Steps which will require many years to carry out should be distinguished from steps which can be carried out in a short time.
- 5) *Translating the plan into action.* This is often one of the most difficult phases. It requires the co-operation of many groups and individuals and involves a long period of active participation on the part of these persons to assure their

understanding and support of the plan. All obstacles must be faced realistically if this step is to be carried to satisfactory completion.

- 6) *Continuing appraisals.* If the steps do not work out as contemplated or the objectives do not meet the educational needs of the people, these facts should be ascertained as promptly as possible. Constant appraisal is essential to determine the respects in which the plan is not working satisfactorily and the ways in which it should be modified.
- 7) *Replanning when necessary.* Few if any plans are perfect in their original form, and replanning is necessary to correct defects and to assure that the plan will meet the needs for which it is designed.

It is obvious that planning is more than the mere seeking for tentative solutions to a problem. Its outcomes are based on evidence. Information and facts are collected to discover and understand all aspects of the problem. Before initial collection of information, the individual or group must recognize a need for planning. A natural sequence to the clarification of such a need is study of past experiences, supplemented by research and consultation with other persons. If the evidence is reliably analyzed and interpreted, tentative hypotheses may be formulated with more assurance that the problem may be solved. There is, however, the possibility that conditions affecting long-term planning may change. Under these circumstances caution is essential in observing the tentativeness of any one answer. Of course, it is prudent to test the tentative plan with persons whose interests and ideologies may be different from those of the planning group. Criticism by the specialist, too, may suggest alternative procedures or desirable modifications of the plan. Success of the total planning procedures is dependent upon the extent to which the tentative proposals may actually be translated into action; the planning is not completed until practical ways are discovered for undertaking action. It is at this point that skilful social procedures are essential. Action must be realized if planning achieves its ultimate goal.

2. Co-ordination of Educational Planning

Within a given community effective social planning depends on the willing co-operation of a number of social groups. Educational practice may, therefore, achieve greater economy and increased effectiveness through more joint enterprises. The determination of the natural planning group or the service areas within which a program is to be developed will not be the cause of concern among the technicians in the field. Cultural similarities, reinforced by civic and other social interests, seem to be breaking down artificial political lines within communities and are being commonly accepted as bases for identifying common interest groups.

It is difficult to find a major educational function which is not an immediate concern to many groups and agencies in the community.

Even the development of the school budget is of interest to civic and business organizations as well as to teachers and allied groups. All questions of educational policy affecting the services of the school certainly should be the concern of many groups within the area served by the school. But educational policies and procedures are not wholly defined in terms of the conditions obtaining within the territorial unit served by a single school or school system. The interests of both state and national agencies are reflected in the educational programs maintained by the local units. Educational planning must, therefore, be co-ordinated with respect to the aims of different governmental jurisdictions as well as in terms of the interests of different local groups. That is, planning on the local level should be formulated with reference to established educational policies on the state level. In turn, the federal policies affecting education should be built upon representative programs on the state and local levels. Any other attempt to derive federal policies may prove artificial and impractical. Program building as an expression of the will of the people is confronted with a serious lack of machinery whereby mutual interaction and interchange of ideas among the different levels can be achieved. Certainly the enhancement of the function of local organization and leadership could contribute tremendously to the improvement of local, state, and federal relationships. As the local organizations, by means of effective co-operation, secure increasing recognition of the results of their planning, they may become influential participants in the planning projects at the higher levels.

More than the development of local leadership, however, is needed. The leadership at each level must seek ways to co-ordinate the plans of agencies on all levels. Perhaps the skills and techniques now exist and only the development of attitudes favorable to local, state, and federal interaction is needed. There are examples of such planning in other areas. The soil-conservation program of the Department of Agriculture and programs sponsored by the federal health and highway authorities illustrate procedures for developing intergovernmental policies based on the needs of local units. In education the co-ordination of planning on different levels might be realized more effectively if serious study could be directed toward the development of the following procedures:

- 1) *The assignment of authority commensurate with the responsibility assumed by the administration of programs on the local level.* Policy formulation ought to be a community-shared responsibility; policy execution may be delegated to competent persons. Too frequently planning goes forward only to discover that each administrator must defer to a superior who in turn secures approval from a superior of superiors before appropriate action may be taken. Optimum conditions for planning are blocked unless fewer referrals for approval are necessary.

- 2) *The decentralization of policy formulation, and the elimination of many lateral lines of approval and authority running into the local community from the state and federal levels.* It would be helpful if studies might be initiated to co-ordinate administrative services and fuse controls that affect the building of a total program of education. Reimbursement for special service in different areas, each with its own basic requirements and policies, tends to increase the problems of planning. Even an administrator of long experience may be bewildered by the many different funds he must consider in order to draw the maximum amount of state aid. A more reasonable administrative organization would permit the local planning group to build a budget in terms of its total community educational needs on the assumption that state reimbursement would be based on the whole educational program. The planning groups on different levels are frequently confronted with the problem of understanding policies governing federal and state reimbursements.
- 3) *The participation of many in policy formulation.* The poll, discussion groups, councils, committees, commissions, and related media for expressing the desires and needs of peoples provide excellent opportunity for the agency to keep its planning program close to its constituency. Refinement in techniques now make it possible for groups to contribute their best toward building a basic social policy. The small discussion-group movement captures the creative contribution of many different points of view and ideologies. Greater use should be made of the poll technique for discovering the attitudes and needs of peoples. Within a few days the opinions and best judgments of a community or state may be measured. Such polls may be made the joint enterprises of federal, state, and local groups. The data are relevant for planning purposes on all levels.

Regional and semiregional conferences of representatives of all areas should stimulate the appraisal and revision of policies on pertinent issues. Local organizational patterns should emphasize the importance of securing assistance from state and related agencies as well as furnishing basic information to a central unit. In like manner educational agencies at the state and federal levels need to be as sensitive to the values of counsel from other groups. Perhaps the consultant may be in a favorable position to be a carrier and a catalyst of planning ideas. If planning agencies on all levels could invest more in consultant service, the exchange of ideas essential to the development of the whole program would be insured.

3. Some Suggested Techniques

There must be well-established media through which parents may express their desires, objections, and educational preferences. In some fashion, whether it be solicited or accepted on occasion, the idea of improvement should be so well dramatized that informal community planning groups would seek the opportunity to offer suggestions for the good

of the school. Techniques abound for achieving this goal on the local and state levels.

a. Hearing Board. Valuable judgments and counsel can be secured in the most efficient and effective manner through the "hearing" technique. With a minimum of effort, an agency may solicit the evaluative judgment of the most competent leadership of the area. This technique has been demonstrated more recently in the state of Washington, where sixteen regional planning conferences on education were organized. Another state superintendent of public instruction uses the hearing board in building policies and in interpreting policies already established. A group of administrators, teachers, and parents accept with good will the call to counsel him. A further illustration of formulating state-wide policies concerns a project in adult education. Recently the legislature of a midwestern state set aside a substantial grant for adult education. Representatives of public school systems and colleges had an opportunity to share in determining policies governing the use of this money. Other groups affiliated with the state education council were requested to formulate tentative policies and programs to guide the division of extended education in the state department. In every instance representation was broad. Representatives of educational institutions, agriculture, labor, industry, business, civic organizations, and professional groups participated.

b. Co-operative Research. The Department of Education in Connecticut operates on the policy of assisting professional and lay organizations in the study of educational problems. In two instances recently the Division of Research and Planning has facilitated co-operative research on vital school problems: In one instance, to promote a study of rural supervision initiated by the League of Women Voters, League representatives actually visited schools, teachers, and boards of education to discover needs and to inquire concerning the effectiveness of the existing programs. In the second instance, the Division co-operated with the American Association of University Women in a study of the functions and responsibilities of boards of education.⁵

c. Planning Periods. In each junior high school at Tulsa, Oklahoma, a time is set aside each day for planning the affairs of the school and appraising the activities that have taken place. The use of the same technique has been reported by a number of state departments of education. One state department assumes that staff members will free an entire day each week for interdepartmental planning meetings and for making ex-

⁵ *Redirecting an Educational Program.* State Department of Education Bulletin No. 1. Hartford, Connecticut: State Department of Education, 1940.

ecutive decisions. The total professional staff generally meets for an hour in the morning, followed by smaller group meetings on problems that cut across divisional lines. Another illustration of current interest in specific planning periods is the Michigan plan for conferences before or after school for the discussion of local problems. A handbook has been released by the Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum to assist local faculty groups in planning a program for such conferences.⁶

d. Advisory Committees. Commissions and committees having specific planning functions are very commonly employed in educational councils on the local, state, or national level. The well-known Educational Policies Commission, the commissions of regional accrediting associations, state-wide advisory administrative and curriculum committees, and local community councils illustrate the diversity of functions assigned to groups in the promotion of the planning process.

e. Basic Surveys. Basic studies of the conditions of school systems and educational institutions, private or public, continue to furnish a rich source of planning aid. Examples of surveys on different levels of education or dealing with different phases of the educational program include the National Survey of the Education of Teachers in 1933, the Regent's Inquiry into the Cost of Public Education in New York in 1939, the Study of Education in the State of Washington in 1942, the University of Chicago Survey in 1929, and the Survey of Pittsburgh Public Schools in 1940.

IV. PLANNING ON THE LOCAL LEVEL

The Study Commission on State Educational Problems has made the following statement of policy regarding educational planning in local school systems:

The local community is education's point of contact with pupils and the public; it is the point where educational problems are most tangible and specific; it is the point where lay interest is most readily developed. It is therefore the vital point of the planning program.

Educational planning at the local level should be directed by experienced educators; however, full lay participation is necessary to develop a well-rounded program and to insure public support.

The participation and co-operation of other local planning groups should be solicited so as to insure the integration of the plan with other community services.

All educational problems peculiar to the community should be considered and reviewed in the light of experience.

Staff members of state departments of education should be invited to parti-

⁶ Michigan Study of Secondary School Curriculum, *Local Preschool Conferences*. Lansing, Michigan: State Board of Education, 1944.

cipate as consultants so as to facilitate the co-ordination of the proposals of various communities.

Local planning should culminate in a practical plan of action which has the approval and support of the entire community.⁷

a. Youth and Lay Participation in Educational Planning. One consolidated laboratory school attacked the problem of planning for its educational needs through a community survey. An inquiry form was prepared for the purpose of collecting data regarding the occupational, social, cultural, and religious life of the community. The information was then analyzed and interpreted, and planning groups of children and adults were organized to formulate policies and programs to meet the interests and needs. The Elementary, Junior, Senior, and Adult Citizenship Leagues participated throughout the whole period of the project.⁸

Local planning of curriculum matters can deal with educational needs and objectives in a realistic manner. In Carpinteria, California, the services of parents, board of education, and teachers have been combined in a study of the direction in which the schools should move. In a somewhat different way in Glencoe, Illinois, parents have been brought into the regular membership of working committees, and pupils and teachers have joined with them in planning better ways of "living together" in the school, the community, and the state. Participation of parents in group planning permeates the whole school program in Glencoe.⁹

Holtville High School near Deatsville, Alabama, demonstrates the principle of planning and studying the needs of the community with an intent to improve its economic and cultural living. According to the principal, as soon as general objectives had been agreed on, a study of the needs of the community was begun. The school initiated a number of projects as a result of that study—for example, meat preservation, repair of farm implements, development of recreation centers and library service. All of these community activities were closely integrated with the in-school program.

The students may sometimes participate effectively in identifying community problems. Guided by their teachers, the young people in the Flint, Michigan, schools have made a number of useful studies on im-

⁷ National Council of Chief State School Officers, "Tentative Report on Comprehensive Planning for Public Education." Tallahassee, Florida: Paul Eddy (Editor of Publications), State Department of Education.

⁸ H. A. Tape, "A Consolidated Laboratory School," *The County School*, pp. 340-76. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938.

⁹ "Together We Build a Community School." Glencoe, Illinois: Board of Education, 1944.

portant aspects of the city's life, frequently through the high-school social science departments. In a number of cases, the basic data were relayed to the Flint Community Association, which regularly attempts to co-operate with and co-ordinate all social, civic, and cultural activities of the area.¹⁰

b. Educator and Lay Planning Councils. With increased demands upon the public tax dollar, many educators are anticipating a period in which funds for school purposes will become more limited. It has been the policy of a number of schools in the United States to secure the participation of teachers in the consideration of those problems which directly affect them. The Superintendents Round Table in Lincoln, Nebraska, prepares reports on financial policies which may be used by the administrator in drafting the budget. Councils and commissions which include teachers in New Rochelle, Shaker Heights, and Philadelphia have frequently been invited to confer with the administrative officers in the planning of the school budget.

In other school systems co-operative councils have had opportunities to share in the formulation and review of personnel policies. The Rochester, New York, Public Schools, for example, report studies pertaining to teacher assignments, retirement regulations, sick leave, and professional ratings.

c. Basic Surveys on Local Level. A common practice in planning is the use of local school surveys. In some instances, and as a matter of common practice in the past, the responsibility for the survey has been delegated to specialists in school administration. The report has then been submitted to the board of education for interpretation and implementation. There is some evidence and certainly a growing conviction, however, that a local school system may with profit carry on its own evaluative study. The application of the Evaluative Criteria for Secondary School Standards, for example, has encouraged co-operative, continuous fact-finding surveys under local leadership. Although there are now many school systems in which teachers have an opportunity to share in determining the nature of the research studies to be undertaken and of participating in them, there is still much to be done in developing effective techniques for such participation. The interpretation of basic data and the translation of the interpretation into sound educational policies is often difficult to achieve. If those who are to effectuate policies are expected to participate in planning them, provision should be made for competent leadership for such undertakings.

¹⁰ *Learning Ways of Democracy*, pp. 414-30. Washington: Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1940.

Many local school systems are attacking this problem. For example, the Moline, Illinois, Board of Education¹¹ authorized the superintendent of schools to establish committees for an evaluative study of the school program and to define the fields of their investigation. A postwar planning committee was appointed, made up of representatives from the board of education, the school staff, labor, management, business, and other community interests so as to present a cross-section of community thinking on educational needs and desirable services in the postwar period. Some of the problems listed for study include extended educational service, development of democratic spirit among students, development of educational policies by democratic procedure, the salary schedule, guidance programs, and others.

Another illustration of long-range community planning comes from Denver, where in the fall of 1942 a survey was undertaken in which government, planning agencies, representatives of business and labor, and specialists in technical fields participated. Among the fields outlined for study was the social-cultural division, which included education. The education section organized a large advisory committee and a small working committee with nine functional subcommittees. The final report was planned to include recommendations divided as between those (a) urgent during the war emergency, (b) of primary importance after the war, and (c) of secondary importance after the war.

d. *Problems in Planning for Local Schools.* In addition to lethargy and lack of facilities in local communities, the organization of the state educational system may interpose certain obstacles to local planning. In some instances the legislature, the primary planning body for state education, needs to modify its laws to permit local communities to adapt certain of the over-all state programs to community demands. In one state, for example, a two-thirds majority of qualified voters must indorse an increase in tax millage above that of a state constitutional limitation before any increase in income may be secured for schools through local taxation. Many communities, thwarted by the lack of qualified voters who have children of school age, discover that this limitation places a serious handicap upon the schools. Planning under those conditions restricts the development of broad improvements in the educational program.

Legislation for special fields or conditions is another factor that may discourage local planning. When vested interests are protected by legislation, it is difficult to bring about unity of purpose and an integration of

¹¹ "Moline Schools Engage in Thirteen-Point Postwar Planning," *American School Board Journal*, CVIII (February, 1944), 43, 68.

programs. There seems to be a trend toward an increase in the number of educational programs for which state or federal funds are available. Both the local board of education and school administrators usually deem it wise to attempt to qualify for these special funds, even though the requirements may conflict with the basic policies of the local school system. Consequently it becomes difficult for the local administration to plan a unified program. Many persons believe that the supervision which accompanies reimbursable programs should emphasize experimentation and adaptation of program to local conditions. This concept of state leadership is a real challenge at this time.

In some states local school systems experience real difficulty in planning their programs because educational functions on the state and federal levels are discharged by noneducational departments whose basic policies and orientation do not promote sympathetic and democratic working relationships with the schools. The remedy is not simple. Acceptable theories of government require that educational functions be discharged by legally constituted educational agencies. Considerable clarification is needed as to what *the* legally constituted educational agency is in each state.

V. PLANNING ON THE STATE LEVEL

The essential principles and practices of planning on the state level resemble those of the local level. State leadership should continually examine its services in the light of the needs of the public schools. The problems, needs, and interests of the local school systems become the problems, needs, and interests of the state. Were the analogy to be extended to its logical conclusion, the points of view, the attitudes, the program on the federal level would be a mosaic of the dynamic needs of great clusters of communities throughout the nation.

The point of view on "Planning at the State Level" expressed by the Subcommittee on Educational Planning of the National Council of Chief State School Officers sets a high standard for state departments of education:

The ultimate responsibility for public education rests with the people through the state legislature. The state department of education is the agent and advisor of the legislature, and, as such, has a unique responsibility in the planning program.

State departments of education should plan to enlarge their professional staffs as required to perform their administrative and supervisory responsibilities more effectively.

Facilities for the exchange of ideas among state departments of education should be more fully developed and plans should be made for collective action on national educational issues.

The State department of education should offer consultive services to local school units and should assume primary responsibility for co-ordinating local planning for state legislative action.

State departments of education along with other state-wide educational organizations should assume responsibility for interpreting educational plans to the lay public at the state level and for seeking to integrate such plans with those of other state planning agencies.¹²

Some of the planning activities in which state departments are currently engaged may well be described.

a. Self-evaluative State Reports. The continuous collection of data regarding public education in the state is highly important. While certain purposes may be achieved by requiring reports from the local schools, the major values of such reports should accrue to those collecting the data on the local level. Therefore, emphasis is frequently put on the use of reports as a means of evaluating the total community education program. In one state, a form for "a self-survey of educational progress" is submitted annually to all school districts for the purpose of securing basic information about plans and developments in the educational programs for preschool, elementary, secondary, and adult groups. Presentation of this report fulfils the obligation of local schools to submit evidence concerning qualifications of faculty, quality of instructional service, and general quality of the total school community program. Filling out the report generally becomes a faculty responsibility and thereby affords an opportunity to evaluate and modify the educational practices in that community. Georgia, Michigan, and New York have published guides for helping local groups to make studies of their own systems. The most recent publication of this nature is New York State's "Manual for Community Participation in Educational Planning,"¹³ organized around persistent problems confronting public education at this time.

Release of the summary of data collected from the school systems of a state is an obligation of the state department of education. Through its analysis, local school systems can discover significant trends in educational organization and instruction. A recent analysis of annual reports of a state department of education revealed a need for redefinition of its responsibilities and functions. In spite of the weight given to curriculum and instructional matters, planning seems to deal chiefly with the larger regulatory problems of educational organization and administration. Disbursement of moneys and maintenance of personnel standards claim

¹² "Tentative Report on Comprehensive Planning for Public Education," *op. cit.*

¹³ *Problems Confronting Boards of Education. A Manual for Community Participation in Educational Planning.* Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, State Education Department, 1944.

a major share of interest. Both are extremely important, yet neither gives a qualitative analysis of the school program. Accounts of state leadership for local curriculum building are, however, impressive.

b. *Basic Surveys at State Levels.* Planning on the state level for re-organizing school-district boundaries should become a serious obligation for a number of the states. "There are more than 120,000 school districts in this country. For purposes of efficient administration there probably should be no more than three to five thousand."¹⁴ A number of state school systems have initiated state-wide studies of school district re-organization.¹⁵ Michigan, Ohio, and Washington have such projects currently under way. Washington has adopted a plan under which local county groups are charged with the responsibility of studying in a critical, analytical fashion the needs of appropriate school attendance areas. Final approval for proposed redistricting rests with the state. In Virginia, educational planning on a local and state level is being encouraged by the State Planning Board in conjunction with the State Department of Education. Tennessee also has stimulated local leadership in initiating school surveys. Many people believe that those who desire a fundamental program of educational reconstruction should join the crusade of building an administrative school district organization that will provide more adequate school programs.

Those participating in the program planning discover the pressing educational problems with which schools and communities are grappling, and find opportunities for united action in which increasing numbers can participate. Under such circumstances planning provides a medium for developing understandings and improved working relationships which may lead to well-oriented community and state educational programs. Lack of co-operation in the development of a state educational plan, on the other hand, leads to misunderstanding, confusion, and illogical relationships.

c. *School Buildings.* Closely identified with the need for more efficient district organization is the great need for planning for new school buildings during the postwar era. One state has reported the appointment of a state-wide commission to advise the state department of education on the development of standards and policies for the construction of school buildings. In that state, all state agencies which approve any aspect of the school plant—location, construction, or safety—have joined in setting up basic policies to guide local communities in their postwar plan-

¹⁴ National Resources Planning Board, *National Resources Development Report for 1942*, p. 121. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942.

¹⁵ *Education for Victory*, II (October 15, 1943), 22.

ning. Interested agencies on the state level include the state fire marshal, the state department of health, the state architect, the public loan commission, as well as the department of education. The specialist on school plant in the department of education encourages co-operative planning for school buildings, with the result that local boards of education are adopting the practice of arranging for those who use the buildings to contribute to their design.

A number of state departments of education regularly assist local school systems in making school plant surveys. For example, the Director of School Buildings of the State Board of Education for Virginia reports as follows:

When a County determines that it should have a survey made of its school plant facilities in terms of school building needs, it requests the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to name a Committee for such a survey. As a general rule the State Superintendent names the Director of the Division of School Buildings as Chairman of the Committee. A member of the State Planning Board, along with two division superintendents, completes the Committee. This Committee meets and does the field work, and then writes up its report for approval by the State Superintendent, who submits it to the local school board for their consideration.

Planning for the school plant often leads into a comprehensive study of needed adjustments in the school program. New York State's program in educational planning is an example. The legislature in 1942 created a public works postwar planning commission. The commission requested the several state departments to prepare plans for needed postwar construction. The education department proceeded to examine the probable future needs of the department proper and of the state's twenty-six state schools and colleges.

Proposals for new construction immediately raised questions as to educational program and policy. The Board of Regents created a committee of its own membership to review the department's proposals and recommendations. Very soon the committee was increased to a committee of the membership of the Board as a whole. This committee met monthly or oftener for a period of more than one year and at various times invited representatives of educational associations and institutions to meet with it to consider the various issues involved. Such meetings included sessions with the board of education of New York City, the board of higher education of New York City, and representatives of the state college association. In addition, the commissioner of education and members of his staff consulted with officials of the various state schools and colleges and with representatives of various educational associations of the state.

In addition to the planning for rebuilding or extending established edu-

cational institutions, the plans provided for the development of a system of institutes of applied arts and sciences to offer terminal technical curriculums of not to exceed two years in length. A system of state scholarships was designed to cover the cost of tuition in any school or college of the state selected by the holder and sufficient in number to provide for the most promising 10 per cent of the annual graduates of high schools and academies.

Practically every member of the department's staff and staff members from many of the state schools and colleges participated in the studies and prepared memorandums for consideration by the regents.

The plans as finally approved by the regents were presented to the Governor and the legislature and published in a document entitled "The Regent's Plan for Postwar Education in the State of New York."

d. Curriculum Building. State leadership in curriculum planning has been widely recognized as a state responsibility. No one person or small group of persons can get very far in developing materials adapted to the needs of all communities of a state—it is a task in which many persons may appropriately co-operate on state committees, with a major responsibility reserved to each community to adapt materials to its own particular needs.

One state curriculum planning committee has been charged with the responsibility of stimulating the organization of local curriculum planning committees. Periodically the state committee, with representative membership of all educational interests, releases through the *News of the Week*, the state superintendent's official house organ, suggestions for facilitating the work of local groups by the exchange of ideas, materials, and aids with other school systems within the state.

e. Teacher Education. Within the area of teacher education, many state-wide planning groups are under way. Undoubtedly the impetus given to this activity is due largely to the nation-wide movement encouraged by the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education. Through its leadership many state groups have been encouraged to rethink the issues and problems of the professional training of the teacher. Consideration is also given to the in-service education of teachers. In some states, state advisory committees have promoted programs for improvement of supervision. These vary considerably, but in many cases they rely upon the technical resources of the colleges and universities.

In Michigan a series of local planning conferences was scheduled by two colleges to study the needs and interests of public schools. Many helpful suggestions came from teachers and lay groups, sufficient to justify the promotion of regional one-day conferences to further the discussions.

Another example of co-operative planning in Michigan is the study of supply and demand of teachers. The information resulting from it has been helpful especially to employing officials, certificating bodies, and institutions of higher education responsible for preparing teachers. The plan is simple. Employing officials, certificating agents, and institutions of higher education send pertinent information to a central bureau, and an annual conference serves as a medium for releasing the information for state-wide use.¹⁶

f. Higher Education. Interruption of the education of youth of secondary-school and college age confronts higher education with a grave responsibility. The young men and women who will leave industry and the armed forces constitute a very large group among whom will be many who wish some form of college or university training. There is here a very real challenge to higher education to identify itself closely with the problems of the constituency it serves. Many colleges are diligently studying this problem. For example, the Oregon State System of Higher Education has been studying the problem of postwar education as it may center around the following issues:

- 1) The educational needs of returning veterans and war workers. Regular college courses should again be popular. In addition, new professional demands in social work, nursery-school administration, teacher training, extension and refresher courses, and correspondence work are predicted.
- 2) The need for medical and dental care. This applies to physical, mental, and emotional disabilities, with special attention to a probable upturn in psychiatric cases.
- 3) The need for expert assistance to industry and agriculture. Research and practical assistance are planned in developing the natural and agricultural resources of the state. Advisory and instructional functions will be directed toward business, industry, and engineering.
- 4) Needed assistance to communities and school districts. These plans call for practical services covering a wide range of financial, industrial, and civic interest.
- 5) The need for a service of public information on scientific, economic, and political problems. In this pattern, Oregon is related to the Pacific Northwest and to the nation as a whole.¹⁷

At least seven states have utilized the technique of appointing commissions to study, propose, and project plans to serve the needs of the

¹⁶ T. Luther Purdom, *Annual Conference on Teacher Supply and Demand, 1944*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan, 1944.

¹⁷ George D. Stoddard, "Meeting Postwar Educational Needs through State-wide Educational Planning," p. 2. An unpublished manuscript presented at the meeting of the National Council of Chief State School Officers, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, December 10-12, 1943.

returning veteran. In Michigan representatives of state selective service, public school systems, colleges and universities, state hospital commissions, agriculture, industry, labor, the United States Employment Service, and other agencies meet monthly to plan continuing programs for veterans' educational and counseling needs.

Colleges and universities have been hard at work on other problems.¹⁸ A survey of 340 colleges and universities conducted by the American Council on Education showed that 245 had organized postwar planning committees.

g. Organization for State-wide Planning. What sort of a mechanism to establish as a state educational planning agency is the question faced by state school officials. It has been answered in a variety of ways, some of which will be described to show that there are certain common elements.

A bulletin issued in May, 1944,¹⁹ by the Superintendent of Public Instruction described the plans and procedures for Pennsylvania's Postwar Education Committee of the State Council of Education. This committee of five, all members of the State Council, after meeting with representatives of educational organizations, approved six study groups and personnel "to study and make recommendations on postwar education problems." Thirty-six committees were appointed, each to work on some one major problem. The membership of these committees, while predominantly drawn from the field of education, included also members of the state legislature, the state planning board, local boards of education, public service groups, veterans organizations, the professions, and other educational and cultural agencies such as libraries and museums. It is expected that the committees will prepare reports for the Postwar Education Committee of the State Council which in turn will prepare recommendations to be submitted to the Governor's Postwar Planning Commission.

In Alabama the legislature authorized the appointment of an educational survey commission, charged with the responsibility of making a complete and detailed study of Alabama's public school system, including the common schools, the state teachers colleges, and the institutions of higher learning; and to make a complete report to the 1945 legislature, with specific recommendations. The seven-member commission includes

¹⁸ "What's Current in Educational Planning?" *Education for Victory*, II (October 15, 1943), 3-4.

¹⁹ *A Report of the Plans and Procedures of the Postwar Education Committee of the State Council of Education, 1944.* Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, State Council of Education Bulletin No. 1. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1944.

a minister, a college president, an attorney, an industrialist, a labor leader, a welfare worker, and a political leader. With an appropriation for the purpose, a staff was employed to undertake the assembling of information desired by the commission as a basis for the report and recommendations.

In Michigan, at the suggestion of educators, the Michigan Public Education Study Commission was appointed. This commission consists of representatives of farm groups, labor, business, industry, parents, the legislature, and education. The Superintendent of Public Instruction serves as chairman, and the Chief of the Division of Finance in the State Department is secretary. Other staff members have been involved in the basic research activities.

Planning is going forward in a five-phase program based on (1) the instructional offerings of the schools; (2) the administrative structure; (3) the school plant; (4) personnel practices; and (5) the finance structure.

A small research committee, including one lay member, has recently completed a basic study of field conditions in each of the five special phases of study. Tentative recommendations have been drawn and will shortly be submitted to the entire group for consideration.

Of significance are the seven principles upon which the commission is making its study. Briefly stated, these set forth that: (1) education is the concern of all the people; (2) the local school community must maintain a large measure of local control; (3) the role of the state is one of leadership and the reduction and removal of inequalities in the educational program; (4) mandatory and permissive legislation by the state should provide adequate authority; (5) the local school community acts as the agent of the state to put the program into operation; (6) the local board of education should provide adequate representation of the people; and (7) professional and nonprofessional school personnel should assume the same role as other citizens in the determination of general policy.

From Wyoming comes a report from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of the appointment in February, 1944, of a state educational planning committee, to formulate plans for presentation to the State Board of Education and the State Planning Board. On the committee are representatives of official state agencies, of the state teachers association, school boards, parent-teacher association, the legislature, and school and college officials.

Several common principles emerge from these illustrations of educational planning organizations. For one thing, they are usually appointed by the board of education, state or local, and have the prestige of such official connection, as well as the incentive of relationship to a policy-making body which presumably wishes to initiate action. Further, the

areas of study defined for these planning agencies represent broad problems of education in its relation to social welfare, employment, health, community resources, and other such problems. Naturally, then, the membership of the planning commissions includes laymen as well as educators, persons whose experience and judgment contribute materially to the deliberations of the committee, and who can in turn interpret the professional educators' aims and problems to the community, to the legislature, or to other administrative agencies. Such co-operative planning promises much for the future of education.

h. Problems in Planning at the State Level. Problems restricting the development of planning on the state level bear many similarities to those noted in the discussion of planning on the local level.

For one thing, the imposition of policies, rules, and regulations by federal agencies sometimes operates as a block. In some instances, exact specifications for qualifying for federal reimbursements make it difficult for federally aided educational programs to become integral parts of the over-all state program. Likewise, the staff assigned to programs affiliated with federal programs sometimes finds it difficult to modify the program so as to meet the needs of an integrated and unified program of education.

Besides this problem, there is the diffusion of responsibility for education among a myriad of boards, commissions, departments, and extra-legal agencies at the state level. When occasion requires that some authority speak for education in the state, it is now impossible for some states to provide such a spokesman since educational authority is not centralized. The natural desire to maintain and enhance prestige sometimes interferes with efforts to bring about a unified program on the state level. An inevitable result of diffused state educational authority is understaffing of the department of education. Consequently, departments of education discharge first the mandatory regulative responsibilities, but frequently have insufficient personnel to work creatively with public school systems. Only as states integrate their educational authority and departments of education secure adequate staffs can planning on local, state, and regional levels become effective.

While adequate personnel is being secured, serious study should be made of ways and means for facilitating the exchange of plans and ideas among local school systems and of securing interaction of the group. Better educational policies would be realized if the needs of local communities could be made known to state agencies. In like manner, there is need for better communication between the federal and state educational agencies. If adequate planning techniques could be instituted on the state level, based upon the recognized needs of the local schools, the effectiveness of educational service could be enhanced significantly.

Besides improved techniques of planning, there is need for more co-operation among departments of education in the same region of the United States. Such problems as the migration of adults, youth, and children, the interchange of teachers, and the transfer of students across state political boundaries illustrate the need for developing basic agreements on a regional basis.

Particularly critical among the obstacles to educational planning for a state is the difficulty of orienting the state legislature to the needs of education. It is futile to attempt to execute educational plans in which basic changes must be made in the legal structure of the schools unless the educational authority has worked closely with the legislative body. The inclusion of representatives of the legislative and of other state agencies on planning commissions has therefore been widely recommended and practiced.

VI. PLANNING ON THE NATIONAL LEVEL

The problems that emerge in connection with planning on the national level are similar to those encountered by state agencies and local school systems. A policy statement on federal educational planning has recently been drafted by the Study Commission of the National Council of Chief State School Officers. The commission indorsed the following basic principles:

The United States Office of Education represents the national government in all matters pertaining to education. As education becomes a problem of increasing national concern, this office should represent and advise the Congress on matters affecting public education.

The United States Office of Education should plan to co-ordinate federal activities in the field of education and improve its own administrative and consultive services to the several states.

The United States Office of Education should offer consultive services in the field of planning to the state departments of education and should assume primary responsibility for co-ordinating state educational plans which may require federal action.

The United States Office of Education should aid in interpreting the needs and plans of education to the lay public at the national level.²⁰

These recommendations may be illustrated by current activities of the United States Office of Education. In the matter of studies basic to planning, the Office has continued its collection and publication of national statistics and other information regarding education in this country and

²⁰ *Some Considerations in Educational Planning for Urban Communities*. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 66, 1943; and *Planning Schools for Tomorrow: The Issues Involved*. United States Office of Education Leaflet No. 64, 1942. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942 and 1943.

abroad. Statistics are not a luxury to be dispensed with during an emergency. They tell the story of how and to what extent an emergency affects education, they show the changes which are taking place, and they indicate to some extent the repairs which will have to be made. Furthermore, they give a norm which state and local school officials can use in reviewing their own status. During recent years, besides the basic *Biennial Survey of Education*, the Office of Education has collected data annually to show the effect of the war on schools and colleges.

A second current service in relation to planning is the preparation and distribution of service materials on educational planning, as, for example, Leaflet No. 64, *Planning Schools for Tomorrow: The Issues Involved*; Leaflet No. 66, *Some Considerations in Educational Planning for Urban Communities*; Vocational Education Leaflet No. 12, *Vocational Training Problems When the War Ends*; Leaflet No. 71, *Our Schools in the Postwar World: What Shall We Make of Them?* (a study guide on educational planning for lay organizations); and the recent series of memoranda on planning for certain school auxiliary services, such as school lunches, free textbooks, and personnel services.

If the federal agency for education is to be of the greatest service possible, it is important that it demonstrate effective forms of organization of its own staff for planning purposes; of co-operation with national voluntary organizations for education; of utilizing the interests and assistance of national groups representing business, labor, management, the professions, agriculture, religion, and homes; and, in certain significant fields of education, that it formulate plans and proposed programs for presentation to Congress.

VII. CONCLUSION

Who should initiate educational planning? Probably the legally constituted education authority should and will. However, educational planning is not the prerogative of any specific agency or group. The schools belong to the people, and many persons maintain that planning for the schools should not be dependent upon the will or the initiative of the administrator. Participation is a right and an obligation of the people. In those communities or states in which educational leadership is lacking, voluntary professional organizations may assume major responsibility for formulating long-range plans and initiating changes in educational practice. Furthermore, in many instances profound changes in school programs have resulted from vigorous action of nonprofessional groups. Their role is and always has been significant in the building of educational policy. In other words, America's school system is now what the hopes and the desires of the people have made it. Its future also rests with them.

CHAPTER X

A PROGRAM FOR RECONSTRUCTION OF EDUCATION

THE COMMITTEE

During the war the schools learned how to do many new things: elementary schools extended their services and facilities to provide a lengthened program of educational and recreational activities for children whose mothers were employed and not at home to care for them; vocational schools developed mass procedures for training persons for single-operation jobs essential to defense; high schools worked out new schedules to permit students to attend school and hold jobs at the same time; colleges used their considerable resources to train technicians for the armed services. In all of these wartime services, the schools responded quickly and, on the whole, effectively to new situations and needs.

The transition from war to peace will bring its own problems in many aspects of both our national and our personal affairs. Our country will join with others in the plans for peace; individual citizens must study and work for international-mindedness. The nation's war industries will slow down and come to a stop; men and women workers must hunt new jobs for which new skills may be required. Civilian production will commence again, and stocks of merchandise will fill out; the individual consumer must know what he can and should buy. The nation's great war training and industrial areas will have less reason for continuance; those workers who came to these areas for jobs will face the decision as to whether or not to take the family and go back home. Our armed forces will release millions of men and women to return to civilian life; many individuals among them will want a better status than that which they left.

All of these problems of national importance have their critical counterparts for the men, women, and children who look hopefully toward the peace. And further, each of the problems is such that schools which are sensitive to new situations can do something about it. Many of them represent primarily a need for new or improved curriculum offerings. Some of them depend for their solution on new or improved forms of organization, representing changes in the present structure of education. The succeeding pages summarize some of these changes in structure, the need for which can now be anticipated.

I. EXTENDING EDUCATION TO ALL THE PEOPLE

The school's responsibility to the community is not fulfilled until there are educational services appropriate in type and sufficient in amount for all who wish them and can make use of them to their own and society's good. The following extensions of service are needed:

1. *Compulsory school attendance laws should cover at least the years six to seventeen, inclusive.*

This is an aspect of educational procedure in which variation for experimental purposes or other reasons is no longer justified. Children are ready psychologically for school attendance at six years of age, and their continued attendance until the age of seventeen or until the completion of high school is necessary to fit them to take their place in adult society. It is also desirable from the standpoint of keeping them out of competition for employment.

The interpretation of "attendance at school" should be broad enough to include a variety of organizational arrangements to provide for special needs, such as part-time work under school supervision, and home or institutional instructional services for home-bound or sick children and youth. Furthermore, while every school should have the intention and the means to enforce school attendance, the most effective incentive to regular attendance is a good school itself.

2. *Youth and adults represent the school's next big responsibility.*

The war and the call to the armed services have revealed how many youth and adults could not read and write, and how effectively they could be given those tools; how many had not, either in school or at work, developed occupational competence, and how quickly they sought and took advantage of vocational instruction; how many could not understand or discuss intelligently the issues which brought on hostilities, and how avidly they sought for answers through the press, the radio, and other means of public information. These needs will be equally serious during the years of transition to peace. With the increased proportion of adults to children in the total population, not even the school program for children can be expected to keep the public's understanding and support unless the school can extend its services to the adult population.

Schools should immediately enlarge their adult-education programs, so that educational services for youth and adults will be available wherever they are available for children, though of types and in forms appropriate to the interests and needs of youth and adults. In the next decade school enrolments should show a marked change in the proportions of enrolments among children, youth, and adults.

3. *Educational services should be extended downward to provide for the three-to-five-year-old children.*

Three major influences have resulted in schools providing services for young children: the kindergarten movement, now more than a hundred years old in this country; the child-development experimental centers, which popularized the idea of nursery schools for young children, with their concomitant parent-education programs; and federally aided nursery schools and child-care centers, operated by public schools to provide services for special groups of children. These three influences together have not provided services for all three-to-five-year-old children who could profit by them, but they have created an understanding of the educational values of such programs on which schools may wisely build to provide optional programs for the nursery-school and kindergarten groups. Boards of education should by law be required to provide school opportunities for all five-year-old children who apply for admission, and they should be permitted to provide at public expense for all three- and four-year-old children whose parents wish them to attend and who will themselves participate in a parent-education program.

4. *Educational facilities should be provided for all handicapped children and youth, "special" only in the sense of their being appropriate to the particular needs and abilities of each one.*

In spite of commendable growth, educational provisions are still inadequate for children who have such physical, mental, or emotional handicaps that they cannot profit sufficiently from the services provided for normal children. There are many excellent programs in cities, relatively few in rural areas; there are partial programs in many school systems, fewer that are comprehensive and that provide continuity of service from early childhood to youth. This country can no longer disregard this wastage of precious and potentially productive human resources.

5. *Postsecondary education should be available at public expense, if necessary, to all who show reasonable expectation of profiting from it and of making a significant return to society.*

Not many years ago only the 10 per cent of economically as well as intellectually favored were found in the high schools. The economic factor, though still present, is now much less powerful in the selection of high-school students. This improvement should rapidly extend into the matter of attendance in colleges and professional schools. Particularly is it important to our national life at the present time. The war has resulted in a "lost generation" of college men and women, a gap of several years in the range of trained, experienced personnel to man the professions and skilled services. It is worth whatever sum it will cost to see that those who should, do go to college, professional school, or technical institute.

II. ORGANIZING THE SCHOOLS

The simplest school system is a single classroom with a teacher and pupils. At the other extreme, large cities must have thousands of classrooms to accommodate their hundreds of thousands of pupils. Grouping these classrooms into administrable units represents a major job of both physical and human engineering. Some principles of organization follow:

1. *Within the total structure of public education there may well continue to be specific units or divisions, so planned as to provide effectively for the needs of certain age groups.*

Such organizational units or divisions may include the nursery school and kindergarten for services to three-, four-, and five-year-old children; the primary school of three years for children of ages six through eight; the intermediate unit of three years for children of ages nine through eleven; the upper division, or high school, of four years, including the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school or junior high school and two additional years, up to the years of specialization at the age of sixteen; the junior college with lower and upper units of two years each, the lower unit finishing the period of compulsory school attendance and providing general education as terminal instruction or college preparatory and occupational training for specific occupations.

Units provided for the postcompulsory-education period will include the upper two-year unit of junior colleges for general education and preprofessional courses and technical institutes; senior colleges for general and for technical education, followed by graduate and professional divisions; and adult divisions or schools (see chart, page 109).

A school administrative unit should be sufficient in population and in wealth to provide all the divisions required for pupils of compulsory-attendance age and for adult groups. The other divisions or institutions may have to be provided for larger areas, even for states and, by contractual arrangements, for groups of states.

2. *The grouping of various units or divisions for administrative purposes will be affected by such factors as size of the unit, available building facilities, and distances to be traveled, but should be determined primarily by relatedness of purpose of various units or divisions.*

A school located either in an isolated or in a densely populated area may include all pupils within the compulsory-attendance period and those of the nursery school and adult school, all in one school organization. On the other hand, if the distance to be traveled is great, it may be necessary to have several nursery-primary schools or neighborhood schools conveniently placed so as to reduce the amount of travel required of small children.

Other systems may prefer to have two school divisions—one including all pupils of the ages three to fifteen inclusive, that is, until the period of specialization; and the other to provide for pupils of the ages sixteen and seventeen, and to include certain postcompulsory units of the junior college, technical institute, and adult school.

Still another grouping may follow the more usual pattern of nursery school through intermediate grades, ages three to eleven inclusive; another group to include the upper compulsory-attendance divisions; with a third grouping to include all of the system's schools for students of post-compulsory-attendance age.

3. *Schools or classes organized to serve special educational needs should always be a part of the organizational unit to which the special groups' age status appropriately relates them.*

Certain well-recognized educational needs such as those resulting from a language handicap, partial sight or hearing, exceptional intellectual ability, or special talent will require the organization of a variety of separate classes for the parts of the students' educational program which must differ from those of the larger group. For the rest of their school activities, students in such classes should participate with others of their age group. These classes organized to serve certain special needs should not, by their separateness or their designations, create class or social distinctions nor psychological handicaps.

4. *Flexible procedures should be developed for the assignment of students to classes within divisions and of transfer from one division or school to another within a school system.*

Complete reliance upon any mechanical method of assignment of students—such as age, number of years in school—is obviously impossible. Intellectual ability, social development, interest, and need are safer criteria but more difficult to assess. Pupil personnel records which include such information should be available for all children, youth, and adults attending school, both for use within the school system and to accompany a student who transfers.

5. *The organization of staff services in a school system should reflect the organization and facilitate the functioning of the component parts of the system.*

If a system has a nursery-primary-intermediate school, there probably should be on the central staff one or more persons responsible for providing assistance in the realization of the purposes of that unit. If there is an adult division, there should be staff service to assist in the effective development of that unit. Staff services for other units or divisions are likewise needed. These staff services are in addition to and different in function from those of administrative officers.

Since continuity in purposes and practices throughout a student's school experience is so important, staff services to provide for such continuity in certain major fields of educational experience are desirable, as for example in the arts, in health services, in science, and others.

6. *An effective organization should be developed to provide for participation of the school staff in the formation of policies.*

In order that administrative action will be prompt and efficient it is necessary for a school system to have definite statements of policy which are commonly understood and accepted. Such policies should be determined through the democratic process of securing staff participation in their formulation, subject always to the final authority of the board of education. To secure effective participation of the staff, some form of staff organization is necessary, such as a delegate assembly or federation of elected representatives.

7. *The school day, week, and year must be extended if the school is to do its part in providing educational, vocational, cultural, and recreational opportunities for the community it serves.*

Round-the-clock and across-the-calendar schools are not nonexistent, but they are uncommon. To the minds of most laymen, the school day runs from nine to three or four o'clock; the week includes Monday through Friday; and the school year means September to May or June, an average of nine months. To the minds of most laymen, too, "the school" is the building down at the corner of Tenth and Walnut Streets, not the garden plots at the edge of town, the camp at the lake, the shops across town, the play school on the school ground on Saturday, the forum for businessmen downtown at noon, the cannery out near the gardens, the work camp twenty miles away in the truck-garden center. But if the school is to serve its present clientele more adequately and extend its services to other groups, the school sessions must be lengthened. Most full-time students could usefully spend from ten to eleven months of the year in school-directed activities. For part-time students educational and recreational opportunities should be provided when and where they can use them to advantage.

Such extended school programs should in no way limit or detract from the educational and recreational opportunities which many parents now provide and which contribute so much not only to the children's individual growth but to family life as well. They should instead help to guarantee such opportunities for all children, both because school facilities would be extended to provide them and because in this way parents and others in the community could join forces with the schools to make a richer program than either one alone could provide.

8. *Each state should develop a comprehensive state system of education which will guarantee that every child, youth, and adult can secure the educational opportunities they need either within the state or by contractual arrangements with another state.*

There are now many young persons who cannot go to high school because there is no high school nearby; many adults to whom it has never occurred that their school might teach them as well as their children; many boys and girls who cannot learn a trade because there is no trade school within a reasonable distance. To guarantee such opportunities it will be necessary for each state (a) to reorganize its administrative units so that each one can support the basic program recommended in point 1 of this section; (b) to assist financially and every other way in the development of the basic program in each unit, with state funds wherever necessary; and (c) to provide certain state-supported and -administered educational institutions to serve all the people of the state. Such state institutions will include colleges and professional schools, technical institutes of a type not appropriately a part of any local school system, schools for the blind, the deaf, the mentally deficient, and the socially maladjusted. These state schools and other educational institutions should be organized so as to serve the people of the state effectively and economically, without unnecessary duplication or competition.

III. ORGANIZING THE SCHOOLS INTO SCHOOL SYSTEMS

In many areas the organization for administering education in this country developed without much advance planning. While the kind of organization which grew up in the various states met the needs reasonably well in pioneer days, these needs have changed greatly during recent years. Recent developments, particularly those connected with the war, make clear that this organization has outlived its usefulness, yet it tends to persist because of tradition, inertia, and vested interests. Needed educational progress is thus being blocked in many states and will continue to be blocked until these difficulties can be overcome; that is, until more adequate school administrative units can be organized.

1. *The structure of school systems seriously needs to be examined and improved in practically every state in the nation.*

Although the plan of organization of school administrative units is much better in some states and communities than in others, some more or less serious deficiencies can be found in practically every state. In the interest of economy, efficiency, and adequacy of educational services, this entire problem should be faced frankly and fearlessly in the near future to the end that needed improvements may be made.

2. *Each state should have one board responsible for co-ordinating all phases of education within the state and for acting on all matters involving federal-state co-operation in education.*

At the present time the number of educational boards or agencies in a state responsible for one or more phases of education ranges from one in some states to as many as ten or twelve in others. It is recognized that the ideal plan would be for each state to have only one educational authority responsible for co-ordinating all phases of education at all levels. It is also recognized that this ideal probably cannot be attained in some states, at least for some time, and that in those states a desirable next step would be to establish one co-ordinating board which will be responsible for deciding state policies on all matters which may arise in the future involving co-operation with the Federal Government. The establishment of such a board by each state would constitute a major step in the direction of needed co-ordination and at the same time would serve as an important means of preventing undesirable federal encroachments involving any phase of education.

3. *If serious mistakes are to be avoided, all states should explore carefully the relationships involving area vocational schools, junior colleges, and comprehensive high schools, on the one hand, and state and local educational boards on the other.*

For some years certain states have been developing or permitting the development of junior colleges. During the past few years there has been considerable discussion and some action in connection with the development of area vocational schools. Interest in the development of such schools has been stimulated by the demand for adequate educational facilities for returned veterans. Obviously, plans in this field should be projected only on the basis of careful studies of the needs and requirements for a comprehensive program of education to avoid unnecessary duplication and competition involving facilities, funds, and personnel between the high schools and vocational schools and also between vocational schools and junior colleges. Moreover, careful studies should be made to determine the conditions, if any, under which such institutions should be considered state institutions to be administered by state boards. It would be expected that under ordinary circumstances any such institution serving local or district needs would be under the control of the board for the local school administrative unit in which it is located. If this is to be done, however, reorganization of local school administrative units will undoubtedly be necessary in many instances.

4. *More interstate co-operation in the planning and establishment of certain educational institutions or departments serving only limited numbers of students seems desirable.*

The fact that a state cannot afford to maintain within its borders adequate facilities for training certain types of students, including particularly advanced graduate students, is being increasingly recognized. Several states have already made some progress with co-operative planning along this line, and even more such planning should be expected in the future.

5. *The fact that many persons, including educators, still associate the administrative unit with the attendance area for one school constitutes a major obstacle to be overcome if much progress is to be made.*

In many of the smaller units the administrative units or districts are built about one small school. Many people thus tend to think that the administrative unit can be expanded only to include one school and that existing small schools must be eliminated if the administrative unit is changed. What we need is a broader and clearer vision of the possibilities—to get away from thinking of administrative units in terms of single schools. The rural administrative unit can include a dozen or more schools, perhaps all schools in a county, as easily as a city unit can include all schools in a city.

6. *While considerable progress has been made in reducing the number of inadequate local units during recent years in some states, much more progress is necessary during coming years.*

Progress has been spotted. In some states little has been done while other states have made substantial progress. While no one knows how many local school units are desirable, it is doubtful whether more than one-tenth to one-twentieth of the present number can be fully justified.

7. *A careful study in all states of the handicaps existing at the present time, and of the measures which have resulted in most progress to date, should help to prepare the way for further needed reorganization.*

Very few states have made any systematic attempt to determine the handicaps that exist because of the structure of the local school unit. Such information properly presented should be most helpful. Furthermore, we know considerable progress in reorganization has been made in certain areas and little progress in others. A study of the factors which have facilitated or encouraged desirable reorganization should be most helpful. In some cases it may be found that existing laws, including state-aid provisions, tend to reward the preservation of status quo and consequently make reorganization almost impossible.

8. *States should recognize that the organization of local school administrative units cannot be considered satisfactory unless or until adequate facilities can be provided for all pupils in each unit, through at least the twelfth grade, at a cost which is not excessive.*

According to studies available at the present time, this means that every local school unit should be large enough to have a minimum of 1,500 pupils and should preferably have at least twice that number. It is impossible to provide economically all services needed by pupils if the number involved is any smaller than this minimum.

Educational progress is definitely limited in many ways by the large number of small and inadequate local school administrative units still found in many states. It should be clearly recognized that an adequate educational program cannot be provided except at prohibitive cost in at least four-fifths of the local school administrative units found in the nation today. The significance of the inadequate local school unit as a retarding factor in limiting educational progress has probably never been fully appreciated. More complete understanding should help to clear away some of the obstacles to satisfactory reorganization not only of common school districts but of the many inadequate districts in which small high schools continue to exist.

9. *Development of more adequate local school administrative units should be a major factor in preserving a desirable balance between state control and local autonomy.*

Neither complete state control nor complete local autonomy is desirable. If there are many inadequate local school administrative units, either the units will strive for a very large measure of local autonomy to protect their indefensible existence or the state will establish numerous safeguards in an attempt to overcome inherent local weaknesses. A much better balance is likely to exist where every local school administrative unit is in position to provide an adequate program for all children through the compulsory school age and the state does not need to make any special effort to safeguard or bolster particularly weak units.

10. *The state has a definite responsibility for helping to establish adequate local school administrative units for all communities.*

Unless the state faces this responsibility, it is certain either that some of its children will have inadequate facilities or that educational expenditures in some areas will be unnecessarily high. The state should seek the co-operation of the local school units, and of the United States Office of Education, in carrying on studies that will show status and need. The objective should be to assure the organization of adequate local school units for all areas. The type of administrative unit may vary somewhat in different sections of the country. Undoubtedly in some places it will be the county, in others the county with independent cities of more than 5,000 population, and in still others a large community unit, but in no place will it be the small district which is still found in such large numbers in several states.

IV. RELATING SCHOOLS TO THE REST OF GOVERNMENT

Education has a distinctive relationship to government. It serves as the basis for all functions of government; its operations are rational and persuasive rather than coercive. As government has become more complex, the problem of relationships of education to government has become more important and more difficult to solve. Failure to solve the problem satisfactorily has resulted in confusion and dissatisfaction.

1. *Education should continue as an independent and unique function of government.*

If the status of education is to be changed in any way in an effort to simplify government, those who are to effect the change must assume the responsibility for seeing that education remains free from partisan politics and is in position to continue to provide a sound basis for government in a democracy.

2. *The desirable relationships of education to federal, state, and local governmental agencies must be more satisfactorily defined in the future if further difficulties are to be avoided.*

Some of the present difficulties arise because we have not taken the time to analyze carefully the actual and potential relations and to work out a program which would involve better relationships. The time spent arguing over prerogatives or complaining about bureaucracy could much better be spent in defining functions and relationships at each level of government.

3. *Educational leaders must work in close co-operation with leaders involving other aspects of government.*

Modern civilization faces many problems which require almost every conceivable approach if a satisfactory solution is to be found. Education cannot expect to solve these problems alone nor can education stand in the background and expect the problems to be solved by other agencies. Co-operation is essential to avoid needless rivalry and confusion.

4. *The fact that each level of government is interested in education and should perform certain educational services should be clearly recognized.*

The problems of education are sufficiently complex and important that they can be satisfactorily solved only if each level of government assumes its proper responsibilities. Those responsibilities need not conflict or duplicate but should supplement each other so as to make a complete pattern.

5. *The development of more cordial co-operative working relationships between the state department of education and other state agencies and departments is essential if progress is to be assured.*

In almost every state many developments occur which are not the result of any general state plan. Often departments are assigned or assume functions which do not belong to them and fail to assume other functions equally important. Leaders of the various departments should periodically join in analyzing the functions being performed or needed in order to determine whether any new functions should be assumed or whether any existing functions properly belong to some other agency. If all problems of this type are faced fairly and frankly, the proper functions of each agency should be clearly stated and recognized and needless duplication avoided. Such a statement of functions is essential as a basis for more satisfactory working relations.

6. *Regardless of the legal status of the local school system, it is essential that plans be developed for co-ordinating all local resources as a means of assuring more satisfactory solutions of local educational problems.*

Educational leaders should constantly seek ways of co-operating more effectively with other local governmental agencies and of assuring their whole-hearted co-operation with education. In many communities there has been entirely too much of a tendency for each function of local government to seek to operate as a completely independent unit and to fail to recognize the interrelations that must be taken into account if problems are to be solved. An attempt has been made in some situations to overcome this difficulty by making the schools legally dependent or subordinate to certain other functions of government. In a democracy it seems obvious that best results should be obtained through voluntary co-operation arising from a general recognition of the interrelationships which exist.

7. *State and local school systems should insist that all federal relations and appropriations involving education be cleared through the United States Office of Education on the federal level and through the state department of education at the state level.*

Much of the present confusion and many of the present tendencies toward undesirable federal controls over education arise because this principle has been ignored. We should be realistic enough to recognize that the Federal Government will probably have even more relations with education during coming years and should be practical enough to insist that these relations be so worked out that they contribute to rather than detract from the proper development of education in this country. The Federal Government has many useful and, in fact, essential functions in education. These functions can best be met when the United States Office of Education is established and recognized as the federal agency to clear and channel all major educational services at the federal

level, and when it is definitely accepted that the Federal Government should deal with the states as units and should not attempt to service directly or to deal directly with individual school systems.

8. *The position of the United States Office of Education in the Federal Government should be materially improved and strengthened.*

Educational leaders should face realistically the fact that the present status of the United States Office of Education in the Federal Government greatly handicaps education in many ways. The Office is not now in position to serve effectively as a clearinghouse for educational services at the federal level, nor to render satisfactorily the services needed by the states. If these difficulties are to be overcome as they should be, the following important steps should be taken in the near future:

- a) The Office should either be established as a department of the Federal Government, according to the original plan, or as a semi-independent agency under the supervision of a competent and nationally recognized advisory board whose members are appointed for staggered terms. Some such step which will greatly improve the prestige and relative position of the agency responsible for representing education on the federal level is essential.
- b) The Office should be organized internally on a service basis—that is, according to a plan which will enable it to function most efficiently in assisting states individually and co-operatively to ascertain and solve their problems and improve their educational programs.
- c) The appropriations to the Office should be sufficient to enable it to employ more staff members who have attained national recognition as a result of their work in education, to permit it to carry on more studies of national significance, to publish the results of such studies, and to render needed services which are impossible under present conditions.

9. *Future years are certain to bring many problems of international relations which involve education.*

As a basis for providing the understanding essential to the establishment and continuation of peace, it seems that all nations should be interested in developing an international organization concerned with educational policy and intellectual co-operation. Such an organization consisting largely of educational representatives, should probably function on a basis somewhat similar to that of the International Labor Office. It should not have authority to establish or control school programs, but rather to carry on studies, ascertain and interpret facts relating to education, and provide a basis for better understanding and co-operation. The publication and dissemination of studies interpreting important educational developments in each country should help to focus attention on internationally significant trends and movements in education, and particularly on those which may have implications for international security.

V. RELATING SCHOOLS TO OTHER EDUCATIONAL AND SOCIAL SERVICES

It is probably a sign of approaching maturity in a country when its social services begin to overlap. This is an indication of widespread recognition of need, availability of active service agencies, and a public conscience bent on doing something about the need. It is a time, however, which calls for objective analysis, and for not only the will but the skill to co-operate.

1. *Schools should develop effective operating relationships with other educational, cultural, and social agencies, to the end that such services will be generally available.*

During the century and more while our public education system has been developing, other services for the general welfare of the people have also developed. For the most part they remained apart, each with its separate function to perform: schools to teach children, health agencies to prevent epidemics and provide health services for the needy; courts and correctional agencies to inflict punishment as a deterrent to wrong-doing; libraries to supplement home reading; and so on. They did not at first seriously interfere with or duplicate each other; neither did they appear to need each other. But as schools accepted the concept of education as a means of serving the needs and developing capacities of students, and as the other agencies recognized the need for paralleling action programs with instruction, the mutuality of their interests became apparent.

Each, however, has its own "system," its own form of organization, sometimes difficult to accommodate to the structural pattern of another. This has resulted sometimes in there being duplicate services in different agencies, or in gaps in services not covered by any agency, or in competition for personnel or for operating funds. The ill effects of any one of these situations falls on the children, youth, and adults who should be served.

If the past decades have been devoted to the strengthening of the different educational and social welfare agencies and their services, the next decade should see the development and perfection of operating relationships between the service agencies on local, state, and national levels.

2. *Operating relationships, though following accepted principles of good public administration, will need to pioneer in organizational patterns.*

Current operating relationships fall roughly into three types: (a) those in which the board of education contracts with another agency to operate, under its general direction, the specific service for which that agency is generally responsible; (b) those in which the board of education

develops and operates a related educational or social service, either for children and youth in the school only or for all members of the community; and (c) those in which the board of education and some other agency jointly plan and operate a special service to which both agencies make appropriate contribution. Illustrations of successful service under each type of operating relationship have been given in chapter v.

So far as schools are concerned, the two extremes indicated by these illustrations seem, on the one hand, to be a school or school system which identifies teaching of a fairly academic character to be its particular function, related educational and social services for children and youth to be rendered by other agencies under arrangements jointly agreed on; and, on the other hand—at some distance, certainly—to be a community in which there is a single board for education, recreation, and other cultural services, responsible for libraries, parks and playgrounds, museums, adult education programs, *and* schools. Which of these extremes a community chooses, or toward which it leans as it develops new operating relationships, will depend upon the present status of its various agencies and their community support, and the strength and vision of its leaders. The important consideration is that there be no gap or inadequacy in service which organizational engineering on the part of school officials can prevent.

3. *Continuous co-operative planning is needed to assure effective and economical administration of these services.*

It is logical that educational leadership should champion a complete program of educational and social services in keeping with American ideals. School officials may be in a particularly strategic position to take the initiative in promoting the necessary agency interrelationships to facilitate such a program. They may not, however, be fitted by temperament or experience to do so. Too often school administration has taken its patterns from military or business line-and-staff relationships, rather than from the fields of social engineering. At any rate, in developing related programs of service it is particularly essential that there be some mechanism for continuous co-operative planning, which can serve such functions as the following: identifying community needs, analyzing resources, assigning specific functions, organizing new agencies if they are needed, and setting goals and evaluating progress. Community coordinating councils, councils of social agencies, and community child-care committees appear to serve such purposes effectively.

VI. PAYING FOR EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

The financial future of public education is socially one of the most important problems to be faced in the postwar period. How much should

be spent for public education? What proportion of the total cost should be provided respectively by the federal, state, and local governments? What criteria should be established for the distribution of federal and state funds for education? What federal and state controls of education are desirable? What controls are likely to be harmful and undesirable? These are some of the important questions in the field of school finance which should be faced and answered in the near future.

The following observations are submitted as tentative recommendations and conclusions which can well be used for guidance in this field during coming years.

1. *The determination of what constitutes an adequate program of education is essential as a basic step in defining and planning for a satisfactory system of financial support for education.*

To define an adequate and comprehensive program of education even on a local level is not a simple or easy matter. To attempt to do so on a state level involves so many complications and such a variety of studies that few states have been willing to face this responsibility realistically. To translate such a program into costs that may be geared to a cost-of-living index involves even greater complications. Yet, unless these steps are taken as a part of a program of continuing educational planning which provides for adjustments to meet changed conditions, neither the legislature nor the public will be prepared to make adequate financial provisions for education. While it may not be possible to attain all objectives at one time, it should be helpful for these objectives to be defined and agreed upon so that any step which is taken and any funds which are requested will be understood as one step in carrying out a more comprehensive program.

2. *There is urgent need for systematic and comprehensive studies in the near future to determine the inadequacies of present federal, state, and local programs involving financial support of education.*

Many of the existing provisions for financial support of education have developed without any sound scientific basis. Even a superficial study discloses the inadequacies in some of these programs. While plans and provisions for financial support cannot be expected to be uniform throughout the nation there can be no justification for some of the variations found at the present time. What types of provisions tend to handicap local initiative and interfere needlessly with the proper local development of a satisfactory educational program? What provisions have tended to distort certain phases of the program and, indirectly at least, to handicap the development of other phases? What federal practices and provisions have undesirably interfered with the development of state

and local programs of education? What types of provisions on federal, state, and local levels tend to stimulate and encourage the development of well-balanced and progressive programs? Urgently needed studies should provide answers for these and many other questions.

3. *The fact that considerably greater expenditures for education will be necessary in the future if adequate facilities and services are to be provided must be clearly recognized.*

In 1930 about 3.2 per cent of the national income was being devoted to education, in 1940 about 3.0 per cent, and in 1942 only about 2.3 per cent, the smallest percentage since the period immediately following the last World War. It has been estimated that nearly twice the amount expended before the war, or approximately six billion dollars a year, based on the present value of the dollar, will be needed to finance an adequate program following the war. In considering the present expenditures and the probable financial needs of education, facts such as the following must be recognized:

- a) In this country salaries of teachers have always been lower than salaries for most other professions, and in many states have been lower than salaries of most other groups of wage earners. During coming years, if education is to make its proper contribution to the national welfare it seems apparent that teachers' salaries must be considerably increased in most states and that this factor alone will necessitate a substantial increase in school expenditures.
 - b) In many areas the services provided through the schools and colleges are woefully inadequate. Provision of needed library, health, recreation, and other services for all areas will undoubtedly require a considerable increase in expenditures for these purposes.
 - c) The facilities provided in the way of buildings, equipment, supplies, and teaching aids are so limited in many areas as to afford a serious handicap to the educational program. Conditions connected with the war have made it impossible in many cases even for existing facilities to be maintained. Considerably increased expenditures for school building and equipment facilities will be necessary in most school and college systems following the war. Estimates of the amount needed range from two and a half billion dollars to five billion dollars for the immediate postwar period.
4. *While much progress has been made in the past, school financial management must be considerably improved during coming years.*

In general, school financial management has compared favorably with fiscal management in other areas of government. This, however, is not enough. Instances of inefficient financing due to faulty organization or management have again and again been used to reflect, by implication, on school financial management in general, and sometimes to prevent needed increases in school funds. The principle of local autonomy should not be perverted to safeguard local mismanagement. The principles of

sound financial management in education are now reasonably well known. It is essential that these basic principles be observed if more serious handicaps are to be avoided in the future. They should be established and expressed in the form of minimum standards which are required to be observed on a state-wide basis.

5. *The problems of educational finance must be considered in proper relationship to the problems of general governmental finance.*

There are approximately 160,000 units of government below the state level in the United States. Nearly two-thirds of these are local school units of one type or another. All of these local units of government have problems of taxation and debt service as well as other problems of finance that are interrelated in many respects. In general it is accepted that the schools should be fiscally independent—that is, that the people be permitted, through their school boards, or otherwise, to determine the fiscal policies affecting the schools as distinct from other fiscal policies. That principle is important, yet it is equally important that it not be abused. The desirability of proper safeguards to prevent any one aspect of the fiscal program from getting out of line must be recognized. All phases should be considered in developing a defensible financial program for education.

6. *Proper provision must be made for adequate local support of education in keeping with the desires of the community and unhampered by restrictive local, state, and federal governmental controls.*

The desirability of requiring some local financial support of the local educational program according to some uniform plan is generally recognized. Beyond the local support which is required, each school system should be permitted to make any reasonable effort it desires. This means that the schools, within reasonable limits at least, should be free from financial interference from local budgetary bodies or other governmental agencies. Moreover, since most local school support comes and will probably continue to come from the general property tax, the state should not impose any tax limitation that does not leave a reasonable margin between the millage required and the maximum permitted. As a means of safeguarding desirable local initiative, any other controls which are imposed by the state or the Federal Government should be in the nature of minimum standards and should not be needlessly restrictive in nature.

7. *State programs of financial support for education should be carefully and systematically developed on the basis of valid and generally accepted criteria.*

Most state programs of financial support for education are inadequate, at least in some respects, at the present time. In practically every state a

restudy of the entire situation would be helpful. It should be recognized that any state program of financial support should provide adequate funds for all phases of the program at all levels, that it should be possible to determine in advance the amount of state funds to be provided with the assurance that they will be available, that a desirable plan of organization at the local level should be encouraged, that ample provision should be made for equalization of educational opportunity, that efficient administration should be encouraged, that the observance of desirable minimum standards should be required, that local control of education should be safeguarded, and that ample leeway should be left for the exercise of local initiative and for local tax effort beyond the required minimum.

8. *Federal support for education should be provided according to a plan, formulated in accordance with socially desirable principles, which will safeguard and encourage state and local initiative.*

The slogan "federal aid without federal control" has led to considerable confusion on the part of educators as well as of the public in general. It should instead be expressed as "federal aid without *undesirable* federal control" because it should be recognized that either federal or state control of education may be either good or bad—desirable or undesirable—and that it is practically impossible to avoid some degree of control. Grants of funds are usually accompanied by a stipulation of purposes to be served, stated so as to show the government's specific stake in the matter, and by other stipulations as to conditions to be observed to protect the government's investment. Unless there is general acceptance of the proposal to return to each state its share of the federal revenues without indication of the functions to be served, i.e., highway development, health services, old-age pensions, forest conservation, or education, it will be necessary to establish basic principles regarding the *types* and *degrees* of control which are socially and economically imperative as accompaniments of federal participation in the support of education.

The creation in the immediate future of a commission, composed of representatives of the public, of education, and of government at local, state, and federal levels, would seem essential for the formulation of principles and a program of action leading to a fair and acceptable assumption of responsibility on the part of the federal government for aiding education as a phase of the general welfare.

9. *Public support for a program involving the adequate financing of education must be based on an understanding of the need and justification for the program rather than on the traditional American faith in education.*

During recent years the competition for the tax dollar has become increasingly keen and the structure of government more complex. The American public undoubtedly appreciates the importance of education but it also properly appreciates the value and desirability of health, welfare, and other similar services, and at the same time, is concerned that the tax burden not become too great. This situation is being complicated by the tax burdens which are being imposed, and which will be continued for many years to come, to retire the national debt resulting from the war. Leaders interested in education, therefore, will need to realize that educational programs must be more carefully prepared and supported in the future than during the past. If the public understands and appreciates the importance of the objectives, and knows that the funds requested are needed to provide the program on the most economical basis, the necessary support will probably be forthcoming. This means that careful studies must be made, that the facts must be available to support the conclusions reached, and that the entire procedure must be more scientifically grounded than in many cases in the past.

VII. USING RESEARCH AS A BASIS FOR EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

The war has brought education face to face with crucial problems. Some are new. Others long with us have taken new form. How they are solved will affect the development of American society. From nursery school to university the content and structure of education is undergoing change.

1. *Within the structure of education it is essential that some agency or process be developed to improve on the methods of trial and error of cumulative experience.*

The imperative need of education in the generation following the war will be for organized research. Heretofore, American education has depended for research chiefly on the individual professor in the graduate school of education. The unit of research has been chiefly the doctor's dissertation. Educational research has been too dependent for support on the foundations. Even in public education, research has been too often a by-product of teaching or administration.

Many of the problems confronting education are large and complex. Their solution will require the co-ordinated study of many minds representing different disciplines over long periods of time. The need is for more workers freed from teaching and administration to be assigned to research for varying periods of time.

2. *There is need for a greatly expanded development of educational research at the state, local, and national levels.*

The most imperative need is at the state level. Through organized research in state education departments and in state universities, the states should conduct research as the basis for formulating educational policy and as a means of evaluating educational programs. The state has the chief responsibility for stimulating, co-ordinating, and disseminating the results of research.

Like the state bureau, the local research unit conducts research useful to the administration in formulating policy and in evaluating programs. It contributes to the efficiency of instruction and administration. It stimulates and co-ordinates research in the school's staff and disseminates the results of research. Properly staffed and administered, it is the yeast that leavens the whole loaf.

At the national level, there is needed a department or comparable agency for education, adequately staffed and financed to promote research in education on a scale comparable to that now achieved by the Department of Agriculture. Such recognition of educational research by the Federal Government would increase the usefulness of such agencies as the American Council on Education and the National Education Association and its departments in promoting educational research and the use of its results.

3. *To develop organized research commensurate with the needs of educational reconstruction will require great emphasis on the recruiting and training of personnel for educational research.*

Research workers in education should be recruited from among the best minds of America's youth. Special curriculums in the best graduate schools should be planned to prepare youth for the exacting responsibilities of conducting and supervising research. Such programs will need to provide a breadth of research experiences as well as intensive training in some specialized field. Wide and tested experimentation is needed with such devices as internships, research assistantships, and postdoctoral fellowships in research.

4. *Since educational leadership will be increasingly dependent on educational research and, since the worth of research is dependent on its use, there should develop the closest co-ordination of effort between administration and research.*

The principles governing the relation of research to administration and teaching should be more clearly defined.

In general, the research staff will be concerned with discovering and verifying new facts, principles, techniques, and methods; and with co-ordinating the energies of many specialists in the study of complex problems.

As a rule, when a research method is developed to a stage where it becomes a regularly recurring service it should be transferred to an administrative bureau or division.

Transfers from research to administration or teaching and vice versa will become accepted practice.

5. *In order that large-scale organized educational research may develop most effectively, comprehensive evaluative surveys should be made of the organization and practice of research in education during the past thirty years.*

Educational research is still a relatively new venture. Some educational research bureaus have failed. Others have succeeded. A casual survey of the record suggests the greatest variety of organization, function, personnel, and relation to administration. The only attempts at evaluating organized effort were made in the mid-twenties. Nearly two decades of rich experience have since been added to the record. A careful appraisal of the experience of organized effort in educational research and of the various procedures in educating research workers would provide a body of principles and illustrations immensely useful in guiding the development of organized educational research and the education of men and women for research.

Such evaluative study of the theory and practice of research in education would be influenced profitably by study of the development of research in agriculture, industry, medicine, and other areas of organized human endeavor.

VIII. CONTINUOUS PLANNING FOR GROWTH

There is nothing inherently new in "planning." It is not an occult science. In essence it consists of setting desirable goals, deciding upon means of attaining them, and periodically checking to see what progress has been made and what remains to be done. Such operations have always been a part of good school administrative procedure. There are some differences, however, or at least some new points of emphasis in current activities in relation to planning. One such is the interpretation of planning as a continuous process, in contrast to the employment of periodic surveys of status quo. This puts an important responsibility on the staff to share in the planning as well as in the programs of action which follow.

1. *Every school administrative unit should have a recognized, effectively functioning organization for long-range planning.*

The importance of having a definitely recognized planning organization in every school system and state department is becoming generally recognized. What the exact agency or organization will be depends upon many factors, such as the size of the system, personnel resources avail-

able, and the experience of the leaders. Frequently the school administrator will be carrying such heavy responsibilities that he will wish to delegate to some assistant or a committee the task of insuring an effective planning program. A resource committee or staff, which might properly be the research or child-accounting division of the system, with time specifically assigned for the job, would collect and summarize pertinent data—educational, sociological, and economic. An advisory council so appointed as to represent all interests which can helpfully contribute to solution of the problems under consideration should, with the director, formulate policies and long-range programs.

The relation of this planning agency, whatever its form of organization, to the board of education and to the school administrator should always be clear. The planning agency is advisory; it is not released from the obligation of being practical, but its work should be characterized by initiative, sympathetic understanding of people's educational needs, and vision. The school board is the official body legally responsible for formulating programs and policies. The administrative officer, superintendent, commissioner, or college president having a responsibility for facilitating the actions of these two groups carries the responsibility of putting policies into action.

2. Planning should be based on a program of research.

If planning is to be successful, it must be based on and continuously paralleled by a program of research. Planning must not become synonymous with wishful thinking. It should be, on the contrary, solidly based on facts and tested theories.

3. Educational planning should be properly related to other social planning under way.

There are hundreds of planning agencies now at work, some of them preparing guides and estimates of anticipated growth or development in some one field—as, for example, for highways. There are also numerous agencies which exist for comprehensive planning—state, local, regional, and national planning commissions; planning committees of national associations, often with their state and local counterparts. The better these commissions do their work, the more will their plans involve education, since education may be the means by which their purposes are accomplished or the user of the facilities they plan to provide.

It is highly important then that those who plan for education be aware of related activities, that they share in them, and that appropriate means of collaboration be developed.

4. The participation of laymen is essential on commissions which make long-range plans for education.

If planning at the local, state, or national level is to be most effective, a plan should be developed for lay participation. Locally, this should include representatives of boards of education, city commissions, public service organizations such as the parent-teacher association, and bodies representing industry, labor, religion, and others interested in schools. At the state level, both for the state department of education and for state-supported institutions of higher education, a planning agency may well include members of the legislature and of state agencies whose work is related to education, as well as representatives of the state organizations similar to those recommended for inclusion in the local communities. Similar composition of a planning agency at the national level is also desirable. The principle of learning by doing operates at each level. The point of view of the layman is greatly needed in the formulation of broad plans for education, and in turn his influence may be profound and far reaching if he shares his experiences on the planning commission with others.

5. *On certain major problems, the activities of educational planning agencies at local, state, and national levels should be co-ordinated and carried on simultaneously.*

State and national educational offices may not be concerned with many of the problems of interest to a local school system. For example, plans to accomplish the beautification of the school grounds in a community, to develop new types of pupil-progress reports to parents, to provide summer-time activities at the school, though interesting to others faced with similar problems, do not depend for their success upon collaboration with other school systems or agencies.

On the other hand, there are problems whose solution requires co-ordination and harmony of planning with local school systems, state departments and boards, and federal agencies. The long-range planning for reorganized school districts and the location of school buildings which may involve federal funds in a postwar public works program is one such problem. Only duplication of effort and unnecessary expense will result from a piecemeal attack.

Another problem from the study of which we would greatly profit, if it could be made a demonstration of co-ordinated planning, is that of providing health examinations and services for all school children and youth. Competent personnel would be needed to analyze the situation, to explore the intricacies of relationships, and to develop the plan and methods for doing something about the problem. The experience gained by local, state, and national agencies in laying out such a plan might happily lead into successful co-operative programs of action.

6. *Opportunities should be provided for both preservice and in-service training of school administrators and teachers in the processes of educational planning.*

Relatively little emphasis has heretofore been given in the preparation of school administrators to the ways and means of including in the planning program those persons whose activities will be affected thereby. Similarly, teachers in training have infrequently had experiences planned for them which will help them to participate effectively in such activities. Teacher-training schools should remedy this situation as rapidly as possible. In the meantime, school administrators have an obligation to provide opportunities for representatives of the various departments of their school systems or institutions to participate in numerous discussions of long-range policy and program.

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CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS
OF
THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE
STUDY OF EDUCATION

ARTICLE I

NAME

The name of this corporation shall be "The National Society for the Study of Education," an Illinois corporation not for profit.

ARTICLE II

PURPOSES

Its purposes are to carry on the investigation of educational problems, to publish the results of same, and to promote their discussion.

The corporation also has such powers as are now, or may hereafter be, granted by the General Not For Profit Corporation Act of the State of Illinois.

ARTICLE III

OFFICES

The corporation shall have and continuously maintain in this state a registered office and a registered agent whose office is identical with such registered office, and may have other offices within or without the State of Illinois as the Board of Directors may from time to time determine.

ARTICLE IV

MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. *Classes.* There shall be two classes of members—active and honorary. The qualifications and rights of the members of such classes shall be as follows:

(a) Any person who is desirous of promoting the purposes of this corporation is eligible to active membership and shall become such on payment of dues as prescribed.

(b) Active members shall be entitled to vote, to participate in discussion and, subject to the conditions set forth in Article V, to hold office.

(c) Honorary members shall be entitled to all the privileges of active members, with the exception of voting and holding office, and shall be exempt from the payment of dues. A person may be elected to honorary membership by vote of the active members of the corporation on nomination by the Board of Directors.

Section 2. *Termination of Membership.*

(a) The Board of Directors by affirmative vote of two-thirds of the members of the board may suspend or expel a member for cause after appropriate hearing.

(b) Termination of membership for nonpayment of dues shall become effective as provided in Article XIV.

Section 3. *Reinstatement.* The Board of Directors may by the affirmation vote of two-thirds of the members of the Board reinstate a former member whose membership was previously terminated for cause other than nonpayment of dues.

Section 4. *Transfer of Membership.* Membership in this corporation is not transferable or assignable.

ARTICLE V

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Section 1. *General Powers.* The business and affairs of the corporation shall be managed by its Board of Directors. It shall appoint the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors, the Secretary-Treasurer, and Members of the Council. It may appoint a member to fill any vacancy on the Board until such vacancy shall have been filled by election as provided in Section 3 of this Article.

Section 2. *Number, Tenure, and Qualifications.* The Board of Directors shall consist of seven members, namely, six to be elected by the members of the corporation, and the Secretary-Treasurer to be the seventh member. Only active members who have contributed to the Yearbooks shall be eligible for election to serve as directors. No member who has been elected for two full terms as director in immediate succession shall be elected a director for a term next succeeding. This provision shall not apply to the Secretary-Treasurer who is appointed by the Board of Directors. Each director shall hold office for the term for which he is elected or appointed and until his successor shall have been selected and qualified. Directors need not be residents of Illinois.

Section 3. *Election.*

(a) The directors named in the Articles of Incorporation shall hold office until their successors shall have been duly selected and shall have qualified. Thereafter, two directors shall be elected annually to serve three years, beginning March first after their election. If, at the time of any annual election, a vacancy exists in the Board of Directors, a director shall be elected at such election to fill such vacancy.

(b) Elections of directors shall be held by ballots sent by United States mail as follows: A nominating ballot together with a list of members eligible to be directors shall be mailed by the Secretary-Treasurer to all active members of the corporation in October. From such list, the active members shall nominate on such ballot one eligible member for each of the two regular terms and for any vacancy to be filled and return such ballots to the office of the Secretary-Treasurer within twenty-one days after said date of mailing by the Secretary-Treasurer. The Secretary-Treasurer shall prepare an election ballot and place thereon in alphabetical order the names of persons equal to three times the number of offices to be filled, these persons to be those who received the highest

number of votes on the nominating ballot. Such election ballot shall be mailed by the Secretary-Treasurer to all active members in November next succeeding. The active members shall vote thereon for one member for each such office. Election ballots must be in the office of the Secretary-Treasurer within twenty-one days after said date of mailing by the Secretary-Treasurer. The ballots shall be counted by the Secretary-Treasurer, or by an election committee, if any, appointed by the board. The two members receiving the highest number of votes shall be declared elected for the regular term and the member or members receiving the next highest number of votes shall be declared elected for any vacancy or vacancies to be filled.

Section 4. *Regular Meetings.* A regular annual meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held, without other notice than this by-law, at the same place and as nearly as possible on the same date as the annual meeting of the corporation. The Board of Directors may provide the time and place, either within or without the State of Illinois, for the holding of additional regular meetings of the board.

Section 5. *Special Meetings.* Special meetings of the Board of Directors may be called by or at the request of the Chairman or a majority of the directors. Such special meetings shall be held at the office of the corporation unless a majority of the directors agree upon a different place for such meetings.

Section 6. *Notice.* Notice of any special meeting of the Board of Directors shall be given at least fifteen days previously thereto by written notice delivered personally or mailed to each director at his business address, or by telegram. If mailed, such notice shall be deemed to be delivered when deposited in the United States mail in a sealed envelope so addressed, with postage thereon prepaid. If notice be given by telegram, such notice shall be deemed to be delivered when the telegram is delivered to the telegraph company. Any director may waive notice of any meeting. The attendance of a director at any meeting shall constitute a waiver of notice of such meeting, except where a director attends a meeting for the express purpose of objecting to the transaction of any business because the meeting is not lawfully called or convened. Neither the business to be transacted at, nor the purpose of, any regular or special meeting of the board need be specified in the notice or waiver of notice of such meeting.

Section 7. *Quorum.* A majority of the Board of Directors shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business at any meeting of the board, provided, that if less than a majority of the directors are present at said meeting, a majority of the directors present may adjourn the meeting from time to time without further notice.

Section 8. *Manner of Acting.* The act of the majority of the directors present at a meeting at which a quorum is present shall be the act of the Board of Directors, except where otherwise provided by law or by these by-laws.

ARTICLE VI

THE COUNCIL

Section 1. *Appointment.* The Council shall consist of the Board of Directors, the Chairmen of the corporation's Yearbook and Research Committees, and

such other active members of the corporation as the Board of Directors may appoint.

Section 2. *Duties.* The duties of the Council shall be to further the objects of the corporation by assisting the Board of Directors in planning and carrying forward the educational undertakings of the corporation.

ARTICLE VII

OFFICERS

Section 1. *Officers.* The officers of the corporation shall be a Chairman of the Board of Directors, a Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors, and a Secretary-Treasurer. The Board of Directors, by resolution, may create additional offices. Any two or more offices may be held by the same person, except the offices of Chairman and Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 2. *Election and Term of Office.* The officers of the corporation shall be elected annually by the Board of Directors at the annual regular meeting of the Board of Directors, provided, however, that the Secretary-Treasurer may be elected for a term longer than one year. If the election of officers shall not be held at such meeting, such election shall be held as soon thereafter as conveniently may be. Vacancies may be filled or new offices created and filled at any meeting of the Board of Directors. Each officer shall hold office until his successor shall have been duly elected and shall have qualified or until his death or until he shall resign or shall have been removed in the manner hereinafter provided.

Section 3. *Removal.* Any officer or agent elected or appointed by the Board of Directors may be removed by the Board of Directors whenever in its judgment the best interests of the corporation would be served thereby, but such removal shall be without prejudice to the contract rights, if any, of the person so removed.

Section 4. *Chairman of Board of Directors.* The Chairman of the Board of Directors shall be the principal officer of the corporation. He shall preside at all meetings of the members and of the Board of Directors, shall perform all duties incident to the office of Chairman of the Board of Directors and such other duties as may be prescribed by the Board of Directors from time to time.

Section 5. *Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors.* In the absence of the Chairman of the Board of Directors or in the event of his inability or refusal to act, the Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors shall perform the duties of the Chairman of the Board of Directors, and when so acting, shall have all the powers of and be subject to all the restrictions upon the Chairman of the Board of Directors. Any Vice-Chairman of the Board of Directors shall perform such other duties as from time to time may be assigned to him by the Board of Directors.

Section 6. *Secretary-Treasurer.* The Secretary-Treasurer shall be the managing executive officer of the corporation. He shall: (a) keep the minutes of the meetings of the members and of the Board of Directors in one or more books provided for that purpose; (b) see that all notices are duly given in accordance with the provisions of these by-laws or as required by law; (c) be custodian of

the corporate records and of the seal of the corporation and see that the seal of the corporation is affixed to all documents, the execution of which on behalf of the corporation under its seal is duly authorized in accordance with the provisions of these by-laws; (d) keep a register of the postoffice address of each member as furnished to the secretary-treasurer by such member; (e) in general perform all duties incident to the office of secretary and such other duties as from time to time may be assigned to him by the Chairman of the Board of Directors or by the Board of Directors. He shall also: (1) have charge and custody of and be responsible for all funds and securities of the corporation; receive and give receipts for moneys due and payable to the corporation from any source whatsoever, and deposit all such moneys in the name of the corporation in such banks, trust companies or other depositories as shall be selected in accordance with the provisions of Article XI of these by-laws; (2) in general perform all the duties incident to the office of Treasurer and such other duties as from time to time may be assigned to him by the Chairman of the Board of Directors or by the Board of Directors. The secretary-treasurer shall give a bond for the faithful discharge of his duties in such sum and with such surety or sureties as the Board of Directors shall determine, said bond to be placed in the custody of the Chairman of the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE VIII

COMMITTEES

The Board of Directors, by appropriate resolution duly passed, may create and appoint such committees for such purposes and periods of time as it may deem advisable.

ARTICLE IX

PUBLICATIONS

Section 1. The corporation shall publish *The Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, such supplements thereto, and such other materials as the Board of Directors may provide for.

Section 2. *Names of Members.* The names of the active and honorary members shall be printed in the Yearbook.

ARTICLE X

ANNUAL MEETINGS

The corporation shall hold its annual meetings at the time and place of the Annual Meeting of the American Association of School Administrators of the National Education Association. Other meetings may be held when authorized by the corporation or by the Board of Directors.

ARTICLE XI

CONTRACTS, CHECKS, DEPOSITS, AND GIFTS

Section 1. *Contracts.* The Board of Directors may authorize any officer or officers, agent or agents of the corporation, in addition to the officers so authorized by these by-laws to enter into any contract or execute and deliver any instru-

ment in the name of and on behalf of the corporation and such authority may be general or confined to specific instances.

Section 2. *Checks, drafts, etc.* All checks, drafts, or other orders for the payment of money, notes, or other evidences of indebtedness issued in the name of the corporation, shall be signed by such officer or officers, agent or agents of the corporation and in such manner as shall from time to time be determined by resolution of the Board of Directors. In the absence of such determination by the Board of Directors, such instruments shall be signed by the Secretary-Treasurer.

Section 3. *Deposits.* All funds of the corporation shall be deposited from time to time to the credit of the corporation in such banks, trust companies, or other depositaries as the Board of Directors may select.

Section 4. *Gifts.* The Board of Directors may accept on behalf of the corporation any contribution, gift, bequest, or devise for the general purposes or for any special purpose of the corporation.

ARTICLE XII

BOOKS AND RECORDS

The corporation shall keep correct and complete books and records of account and shall also keep minutes of the proceedings of its members, Board of Directors and committees having any of the authority of the Board of Directors, and shall keep at the registered or principal office a record giving the names and addresses of the members entitled to vote. All books and records of the corporation may be inspected by any member or his agent or attorney for any proper purpose at any reasonable time.

ARTICLE XIII

FISCAL YEAR

The fiscal year of the corporation shall begin on the first day of July in each year and end on the last day of June of the following year.

ARTICLE XIV

DUES

Section 1. *Annual Dues.* The dues for active members shall be \$2.50 for each calendar year.

Section 2. *Election Fee.* An election fee of \$1.00 shall be paid in advance by each applicant for active membership.

Section 3. *Payment of Dues.* Dues for each calendar year shall be payable in advance on or before the first day of January of that year. Notice of dues for the ensuing year shall be mailed to members at the time set for mailing the primary ballots.

Section 4. *Default and Termination of Membership.* Annual membership shall terminate automatically for those members whose dues remain unpaid after the first day of January of each year. Members so in default will be reinstated on payment of the annual dues plus a reinstatement fee of fifty cents.

ARTICLE XV

SEAL

The Board of Directors shall provide a corporate seal which shall be in the form of a circle and shall have inscribed thereon the name of the corporation and the words "Corporate Seal, Illinois."

ARTICLE XVI

WAIVER OF NOTICE

Whenever any notice whatever is required to be given under the provisions of the General Not For Profit Corporation Act of Illinois or under the provisions of the Articles of Incorporation or the by-laws of the corporation, a waiver thereof in writing signed by the person or persons entitled to such notice, whether before or after the time stated therein, shall be deemed equivalent to the giving of such notice.

ARTICLE XVII

AMENDMENTS

Section 1. *Amendments by Directors.* The constitution and by-laws may be altered or amended at any meeting of the Board of Directors duly called and held, provided that an affirmative vote of at least five directors shall be required for such action.

Section 2. *Amendments by Members.* By petition of twenty-five or more active members duly filed with the Secretary-Treasurer, a proposal to amend the constitution and by-laws shall be submitted to all active members by United States mail together with ballots on which the members shall vote for or against the proposal. Such ballots shall be returned by United States mail to the office of the Secretary-Treasurer within twenty-one days after date of mailing of the proposal and ballots by the Secretary-Treasurer. The Secretary-Treasurer or a committee appointed by the Board of Directors for that purpose shall count the ballots and advise the members of the result. A vote in favor of such proposal by two-thirds of the members voting thereon shall be required for adoption of such amendment.

SYNOPSIS OF THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE SOCIETY DURING 1944

I. MEETING OF FEBRUARY 24 AT NEW YORK

The Board of Directors met at the Hotel Biltmore, the following members being present: Brownell, Goodykoontz, Horn, Stoddard (*Chairman*), and Henry (*Secretary*); and, by invitation, Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver.

1. The Secretary reported that the annual election of 1943 resulted in the re-election of Mr. Stoddard for a second term and the election of Ernest O. Melby, President of the University of Montana, as a new member of the Board for the term beginning March 1, 1944.

2. The preferential vote of members of the Society on the proposal to incorporate the Society was announced as follows: in favor of incorporation, 615; opposed, 24; no preference, 2. The Secretary was instructed to proceed with the steps necessary to secure the Certificate of Incorporation.

3. The Secretary reported the results of inquiries concerning some of the securities owned by the Society. In light of advices received, the Board instructed the Secretary to sell four bonds of aggregate current value amounting to about \$2,700, the proceeds to be invested in United States of America Savings Bonds.

4. Mr. Brownell was elected Chairman of the Board for the year beginning March 1.

5. The Board approved plans that had been made since the last meeting for joint meetings with the American Educational Research Association in connection with the regional conferences of the American Association of School Administrators at New York on February 24, Chicago on March 1, and Kansas City on March 10.

6. Mr. Tyler, chairman of the committee for the preparation of Part I of the yearbook for 1945, sent a report of status of this volume. In accordance with his request, the Board appointed Professor Henry Harap and Miss Hilda Taba as additional members of the committee.

7. Miss Goodykoontz reported that six persons had accepted the invitation to serve as members of the committee for Part II of the yearbook for 1945. The question of possible duplication of content of this volume, which deals with the structure of educational systems, and the yearbook on educational administration approved by the Board at its meeting in February, 1942, was discussed at length. Mr. Kefauver, chairman of the committee on educational administration, was present to participate in this discussion. In conclusion it was agreed that differentiated treatment of problems common to the areas to be dealt with in the two volumes offered a satisfactory solution of the difficulties mentioned.

8. Mr. Horn offered the suggestion that plans be initiated for a future yearbook dealing with the use of concrete materials in instruction, explaining that this suggestion grew out of a recent interview with Professor Edgar Dale of Ohio

State University. The Board manifested considerable interest in promoting plans for such a yearbook and instructed the Secretary to request Professor Dale to prepare an outline of the organization of the volume for consideration at the next meeting.

9. Referring to a proposal presented at the previous meeting of the Board, Mr. Brownell suggested that plans should be made immediately for initiating the preparation of the yearbook dealing with the topic tentatively designated as "the measurement of meaning." The Board thereupon requested Mr. Brownell to serve as chairman of the committee for this yearbook and approved the appointment of the following members: Professor Katona, University of Chicago, Professor Spitzer, University of Iowa, and Dr. Findley, New York State Education Department.

II. MEETING OF MAY 23 AT CHICAGO

The Board of Directors met at the Shoreland Hotel, the following members being present: Brownell (*Chairman*), Horn, Stoddard, and Henry (*Secretary*).

1. The Secretary reported that the Secretary of State of the State of Illinois had issued the Certificate of Incorporation of the Society on March 27 and that this certificate had been filed for record on March 28 in the office of the Recorder of Deeds of Cook County, Illinois.

2. The Board, by appropriate resolutions, adopted the Constitution and By-laws of the Corporation, including therein the provisions of the existing constitution of the Society and such additions thereto as were deemed necessary and desirable for compliance with the provisions of the "General Not for Profit Corporation Act" of the State of Illinois. (See the preceding section of this yearbook for text of the Constitution and By-laws.)

3. Officers of the Corporation were elected to serve until the next annual meeting, as follows: Chairman of the Board of Directors, Mr. Brownell; Vice-Chairman of the Board, Mr. Charters; Secretary-Treasurer, Mr. Henry.

4. The Secretary presented a report of the three meetings held in connection with regional conferences of the American Association of School Administrators. The Board authorized the Secretary to make the necessary arrangements for similar meetings in 1945.

5. The Secretary was instructed to report at the next meeting on the inventory of yearbooks, with suggestions regarding possible methods of disposing of surplus stock of the earlier volumes for which there is now little demand.

6. A report of progress on the two volumes of the yearbook on postwar education was presented. The Board authorized an increase of \$250 in the appropriation for expenses of each of these committees.

7. The Secretary presented a communication from Mr. Kefauver announcing his early departure for London as a representative of the State Department and suggesting that the members of the committee on educational administration be requested to continue work on this yearbook during his absence. Mr. Stoddard was requested to invite Dr. Alonzo G. Grace, a member of the committee, to assume the responsibilities of the chairman.

8. Mr. Brownell requested the appointment of Professors Harl R. Douglass of

the University of Colorado and Verner M. Sims of the University of Alabama as additional members of the committee for the yearbook on the measurement of meaning. This request was approved.

III. MEETING OF OCTOBER 21 AT CHICAGO

The Board of Directors met at the Shoreland Hotel, the following members being present: Brownell (*Chairman*), Freeman, Horn, Stoddard, and Henry (*Secretary*).

1. The Secretary reported that the membership of the Society at the time of this meeting was 1326. At the end of the year, 1943, there were 1242 members.

2. The Board decided to publish the two volumes of the yearbook for 1945 under the general title, *American Education in the Postwar Period*, with subtitles as follows: Part I, *Curriculum Reconstruction*; Part II, *Structural Reorganization*.

3. In accordance with the previous practice of the Board, provision was made for an audit of the financial records as of the last fiscal year. The audit report, prepared by Scovell, Wellington and Company, Accountants and Auditors, was accepted and approved on examination by the members present.

4. The Board instructed the Secretary to publish the Constitution and By-laws, as adopted pursuant to the incorporation of the Society, in Part II of the yearbook for 1945.

5. The Secretary presented a report of the number of copies on hand of each of the first thirty-five yearbooks, together with a statement of copies sold since December, 1942, and an estimate of the quantities deemed adequate to meet the demand for these volumes during the next five years. The Secretary was then instructed to assemble five complete sets of the yearbooks, to be permanently retained in the office of the Society, and to circulate appropriate announcements of the availability of surplus stock of the earlier publications at reduced prices.

6. The Board approved Mr. Brownell's suggestion that the titles of the yearbook previously designated "The Measurement of Meaning" be changed to "The Measurement of Understanding." It was ordered that the initial appropriation for the preparation of this yearbook be increased to provide a total allowance of \$1,500 for expenses of the committee.

7. The Secretary reported that Dr. Alonzo G. Grace had accepted the invitation to serve as chairman of the committee for the yearbook on administration and that plans were being made for a meeting of the committee.

8. The Board concurred in the suggestion presented in a communication received from Professor Dale that further action on the proposal for a yearbook dealing with the use of concrete materials of instruction be postponed until next year.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER OF THE SOCIETY 1943-1944

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

Receipts:

Membership dues	\$ 3,559.58
Fees for quotations	3.00
Sales of yearbooks	8,233.80
Payments on principal of notes	2,737.31
Interest on notes	452.41
Interest and dividend on securities	343.23
Interest on savings accounts	115.49
Miscellaneous	48.57
Sales of securities	2,766.25
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Total receipts	\$18,259.64

Disbursements:

Yearbooks:

Manufacturing and distribution	\$ 4,510.97
Reprinting	2,513.40
Preparation	2,967.60
Meetings	999.88

Secretary's office:

Editorial, secretarial, and clerical services	3,028.35
Supplies	541.68
Telephone and telegraph	64.44
Legal fees	506.67
Miscellaneous	201.10
Purchase of securities	5,200.00
	<hr/>

Total disbursements \$20,534.09

Excess of disbursements over receipts \$ 2,274.45

Cash in banks at beginning of year 7,893.83

Cash in banks at end of year \$ 5,619.38

STATEMENT OF CASH, SECURITIES,
AND NOTES RECEIVABLE

As of June 30, 1944

Cash:

University National Bank, Chicago, Illinois, Checking account	\$ 917 70
Danvers Savings Bank, Danvers, Massachusetts, Savings account	2,835 15
Salem Five Cents Savings Bank, Salem, Massachusetts, Savings account	1,866 54
	<u>\$ 5,619.38</u>

Securities:

Bonds:	Cost	Market Value
\$1,000 Pennsylvania R.R. Co. General Mortgage, $4\frac{1}{2}\%$ due 6/1/65	\$ 960 00	\$ 1,122 50
£200 Canada Atlantic Ry. Co. Cons. 1st Mortgage, 4% due 1/1/55	937 98	1,015 00
£200 Canada Atlantic Ry. Co. Cons. 1st Mortgage, 4% due 1/1/55	928.26	1,015 00
\$5,200 U.S. of America Savings Bonds, Series "G," $2\frac{1}{2}\%$, due 12 years from issue date	5,200.00	
\$1,000 dated 9/1/43		988.00
\$1,500 dated 2/1/44		1,482.00
\$2,700 dated 5/1/44		2,667.60
Stock:		
25 Shares First National Bank of Boston, Capital stock	1,031.25	1,250.00
Total securities	<u>\$9,057.49</u>	<u>\$ 9,540 10</u>

Notes receivable, Public School Publishing Company:

4% Secured notes dated 1/2/43 due on or before 1/2/49	\$5,367.00	
4% Unsecured note dated 1/2/43, due on or before 1/2/49	4,119.25	\$ 9,486.25
Total assets		<u><u>\$24,645 73</u></u>

Note: The foregoing financial statements are taken from the audit report prepared by Scovell, Wellington & Company, Accountants and Auditors, and received by the Board of Directors October 21, 1944. Information concerning details of this report is available to any member of the Society on application to the Board of Directors.

NELSON B. HENRY, *Treasurer*

MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

(This list includes all persons enrolled December 31, 1944, whether for
1944 or 1945)

HONORARY MEMBERS

Dewey, Emeritus Professor John, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.
Holmes, Manfred J., Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

Abelson, Dr. Harold H., College of the City of New York, New York, N.Y.
Abernethy, Professor Ethel M., Queens College, Charlotte, N.C.
Abraham, H. G., Superintendent of Schools, Woodstock, Ill.
Adams, H. W., Superintendent of Schools, Eureka, Calif.
Adams, Ray H., Superintendent of Schools, Dearborn, Mich.
Adams, Ruby M., Director of Elementary Education, Schenectady, N.Y.
Aiken, E. S., Supervisor, Rapides Parish Schools, Alexandria, La.
Ainsworth, Stanley H., Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.
Albert, Mrs. Louise C., 3121 Sherman Ave., Washington, D.C.
Albright, Frank S., 3509 West Eleventh Ave., Gary, Ind.
Allen, Clara B., 145 East Maple Ave., Ottumwa, Iowa
Allen, D. W., Director of Education, Ohio State Reformatory, Mansfield, Ohio
Allman, H. B., Superintendent of Schools, Muncie, Ind.
Ambrose, Dr. Luther M., Box 514, College Station, Berea, Ky.
Ambruster, John R., Principal, Greendale School, Greendale, Wis.
Anderson, Esther L., Supt. of Public Inst., State Capitol Bldg, Cheyenne, Wyo.
Anderson, Harold A., Dept. of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Anderson, Harry D., Supt., Ottawa Township High School, Ottawa, Ill.
Anderson, Professor Howard R., Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
Anderson, J. L., Superintendent of Schools, Trenton, Mich.
Anderson, John E., Dir., Inst. Child Welfare, Univ. of Minn, Minneapolis, Minn.
Anderson, Marion, Ginn and Company, Boston, Mass.
Andrews, Annie, Supv., Amite County Elementary Schools, Liberty, Miss.
Andrus, Dr. Ruth, State Education Department, Albany, N.Y.
Anketell, Richard N., Superintendent of Schools, North Adams, Mass.
Ansbaugh, G. E., Principal, Sullivan High School, Chicago, Ill.
Antell, Dr. Henry, 120 Kenilworth Place, Brooklyn, N.Y.
Archer, Major C. P., 1381 North Cleveland Ave., St. Paul, Minn.
Armstrong, Sara M., State Normal School, Framingham Center, Mass.
Arrants, John H., Superintendent of Schools, Bristol, Tenn.
Arsenian, Professor Seth, Springfield College, Springfield, Mass.
Artley, A. Sterl, Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.
Asgis, Dr. Alfred J., 7 East Forty-second St., New York, N.Y.
Asbaugh, Dr. Ernest J., Miami University, Oxford, Ohio
Atkinson, Dean William N., Jackson Junior College, Jackson, Mich.
Avery, George T., Marvin Ave., Los Altos, Calif.
Ayer, Jean, 8 Scholes Lane, Essex, Conn.

Babcock, E. H., Superintendent of Schools, Grand Haven, Mich.
Babcock, George T., 182 Second St., San Francisco, Calif.
Backus, Joyce, Librarian, State College, San Jose, Calif.
Baer, Dr. Joseph A., State Department of Education, Hartford, Conn.
Bagley, Professor William C., 525 West 120th St., New York, N.Y.

- Bailey, Dr. Francis L., Principal, Gorham Normal School, Gorham, Me.
 Baker, Edith M., Acting Librarian, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
 Baker, Harold B., Principal, Daniel Webster School, New Rochelle, N.Y.
 Baker, Dr. Harry J., Dir., Psychological Clinic, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.
 Baker, Major Harry Leigh, 2952 South Columbus St., Arlington, Va.
 Ball, George, Principal, Chatham Junior High School, Savannah, Ga.
 Balyeat, Professor F. A., University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
 Bamberger, Dr. Florence E., Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.
 Barber, Professor Fred H., Box 247, Emory, Va.
 Bardy, Joseph, Bellerich Apt., Fifteenth and Spruce Sts., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Bare, J. M., Principal, Birchwood High School, Birchwood, Tenn.
 Barrett, Rt. Rev. Msgr. John I., 415 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.
 Barrie, Margaret J., Principal, Lincoln School, Hawthorne, N.J.
 Barth, Rev. Pius J., Dean, Quincy College, Quincy, Ill.
 Barthold, Harold J., Supervising Principal, Bethlehem, Pa.
 Bartlett, Roland O., Principal, Westmount Senior High School, Quebec, Can.
 Batchelder, Mildred L., American Library Association, Chicago, Ill.
 Beall, Dr. Ross H., University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Okla.
 Bear, Professor Robert M., Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.
 Bechtel, Blair B., Moorestown High School, Moorestown, N.J.
 Beck, Professor Hubert Park, Rhode Island State College, Kingston, R.I.
 Bedell, Ralph C., Lt., USNR, Chief of Staff, Naval Air Traming, Pensacola, Fla.
 Behrens, Prof. Minnie, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Tex.
 Bell, Dorothy M., President, Bradford Junior College, Bradford, Mass.
 Bell, Dr. Millard D., Superintendent of Schools, Wilmette, Ill.
 Bell, R. W., Principal, Jenkintown High School, Jenkintown, Pa.
 Bender, John F., School of Education, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Okla.
 Benner, Thomas E., Dean, College of Educ., Univ. of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
 Benson, J. R., 6131 Magnolia Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
 Benz, H. E., College of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio
 Berg, Locksley D., Principal, Monroe School, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Berg, Selmer H., Superintendent of Schools, Rockford, Ill.
 Bergesen, B. E., Jr., Educational Test Bureau, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Berkson, I. B., 39 Claremont Ave., New York, N.Y.
 Berman, Dr. Samuel, Prin., FitzSimmons Junior High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Berry, Professor Charles S., Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
 Betts, Professor Emmett A., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
 Beug, Hilda M., Field Supervisor, State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn.
 Beumer, Edw. H., Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.
 Bickel, Dr. L. G., Dean, Concordia Teachers College, Seward, Neb.
 Bigelow, Karl W., Director, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.
 Billett, Professor Roy O., Boston University, Boston, Mass.
 Billig, Dr. Florence Grace, Wayne University, Detroit, Mich.
 Binnie, Clara G., 9 Tennis Crescent, Toronto, Can.
 Bishop, S. D., Principal, Community High School, West Chicago, Ill.
 Bixler, H. H., Dir., Research and Guidance, Board of Educ., Atlanta, Ga.
 Bixler, Professor Lorin, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio
 Black, H. B., Superintendent of Schools, Mattoon, Ill.
 Blackburn, J. Albert, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N.J.
 Blackwell, G. L., Superintendent of Schools, St. Joseph, Mo.
 Blair, Professor Glenn M., University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
 Blodgett, Darrell R., Superintendent of Schools, Jacksonville, Ill.
 Blommers, Paul, 12 Woolf Court, Iowa City, Iowa
 Bloomingdale, Lewis M., Jr., Elm Ridge Farm, Scarsdale, N.Y.
 Boardman, Professor Charles W., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Boggan, T. K., Superintendent of Schools, Carthage, Miss.
 Bole, Lyman W., Superintendent of Schools, Springfield, Vt.
 Bolton, Professor Frederic E., University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.
 Bond, G. W., Dean, Southeastern Louisiana College, Hammond, La.
 Bond, J. C., Dean, Teachers College, Kansas City, Mo.
 Book, Clare B., Principal, Senior High School, New Castle, Pa.
 Booker, Ivan A., Asst. Dir., Research Division, N.E.A., Washington, D.C.
 Bookwalter, Professor Karl W., Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

Booth, John M., Superintendent of Schools, Kellogg, Idaho
 Boraas, Julius, St. Olaf College, Northfield, Minn.
 Boros, Arnold L., Public School 36, Bronx, New York, N.Y.
 Bossing, Professor Nelson L., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Boswell, Sidney, Principal, Glynn Academy, Brunswick, Ga.
 Bowman, Clarice M., Methodist Board of Education, Nashville, Tenn.
 Bowman, Clyde A., Dir., Dept. of Industrial Arts, Stout Inst., Menomonie, Wis.
 Bowyer, Vernon, Board of Education, 228 North LaSalle St., Chicago, Ill.
 Boyce, Arthur Clifton, American Mission, Teheran, Iran
 Boyd, Fred, Spear Lake School, Marked Tree, Ark.
 Boyne, Edwin M., Superintendent of Schools, Mason, Mich.
 Bracken, John L., 7500 Maryland Ave., Clayton, Mo.
 Bragdon, Helen D., 348 Mentor Ave., Painesville, Ohio
 Brammell, Roy, Dean, Dept. of Educ., University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn.
 Branom, Frederick K., Chicago Teachers College, Chicago, Ill.
 Brechbill, Professor Henry, University of Maryland, College Park, Md.
 Breed, Professor Frederick S., Dune Acres, Chesterton, Ind.
 Brennan, Fred J., Asst. Superintendent of Schools, Worcester, Mass.
 Bresnehan, Dr. Ella L., Dir., Dept. Ed. Investigation and Meas., Boston, Mass.
 Brewer, Professor Emeritus John M., Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
 Brewer, Karl M., Superintendent of Schools, DuBois, Pa.
 Brickman, Professor Benjamin, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Bridgett, Alice E., Colony Street School, Wallingford, Conn.
 Bright, O. T., Jr., Superintendent of Schools, Lake Bluff, Ill.
 Brinkley, Sterling G., Emory University, Ga.
 Brinkman, Rev. Gervase J., O.F.M., St. Joseph College, Westmont, Ill.
 Brinkmann, Helen S., 4108 W. North Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Brish, William M., Asst. Supt., Prince George's Ct. Schls., Upper Marlboro, Md.
 Bristol, L. M., University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla.
 Bristow, William H., Bur. of Reference, Research, and Statistics, Brooklyn, N.Y.
 Broening, Angela M., 2 Millbrook Road, Baltimore, Md.
 Bronfenbrenner, Lt. Urie, Borden General Hospital, Chickasha, Okla.
 Brooks, Charles D., Vice-principal, Stanton High School, Jacksonville, Fla.
 Brooks, Professor Mary B., Georgia State College for Women, Milledgeville, Ga.
 Brougher, John F., Calvin Coolidge High School, Washington, D.C.
 Brown, Carroll E., Principal, Sherwood School, Chicago, Ill.
 Brown, Professor Clara M., University Farm, Univ. of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.
 Brown, Edward W., Head Master, Calvert School, Baltimore, Md.
 Brown, Francis W., Superintendent, Ottawa Hills Schools, Toledo, Ohio
 Brown, George Earl, Superintendent of Schools, Ocean City, N.J.
 Brown, Professor Harold N., University of Nevada, Reno, Nev.
 Brown, Harold S., President, Chas. E. Merrill Co., Inc., New York, N.Y.
 Brown, Joseph C., Superintendent of Schools, Pelham, N.Y.
 Brown, Josephine H., State Teachers College, Bowie, Md.
 Brown, Mrs. Marjorie Dowling, 245 Wilton Pl., Los Angeles, Calif.
 Brown, Mrs. Nina H., Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa
 Brown, Stella E., State Teachers College, Towson, Md.
 Brownell, Professor S. M., Graduate School, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.
 Brownell, Professor W. A., Duke University, Durham, N.C.
 Bruce, Homer A., State Teachers College, Buffalo, N.Y.
 Bruck, John P., 218 Potters Corners Road, Buffalo, N.Y.
 Brueckner, Professor Leo J., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
 Brumbaugh, A. J., American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.
 Brunner, Howard B., Supervising Principal of Schools, Scotch Plains, N.J.
 Bryant, Alice G., River Road, Hampton, Va.
 Buchanan, James H., Superintendent of Schools, Boulder, Colo.
 Buchanan, William D., Gundlach School, 2931 Arlington Ave., St. Louis, Mo.
 Buckingham, Dr. B. R., Ginn and Company, Boston, Mass.
 Buckingham, Guy E., Chm., Division of Educ., Allegheny College, Meadville, Pa.
 Buckner, W. N., Phelps Vocational High School, Washington, D.C.
 Bullock, W. J., Superintendent of Schools, Kannapolis, N.C.
 Burch, Irving B., II, 2802½ Dowling St., Houston, Tex.
 Burk, Cassie, State Normal School, Fredonia, N.Y.

- Burke, Arvid J., New York State Teachers Association, Albany, N.Y.
 Burkhardt, Allen P., Superintendent of Schools, Norfolk, Neb.
 Burnham, Archer L., Exec. Sec'y, Neb. State Teachers Assn., Lincoln, Neb.
 Burns, Robert L., Principal, Cliffside Park High School, Cliffside Park, N.J.
 Burros, Francis C., Asst. Superintendent of Schools, White Plains, N.Y.
 Burt, C. Vinton, State Teachers College, Mankato, Minn.
 Bush, Mabelle G., State Department of Public Instruction, Madison, Wis.
 Bush, Robert N., Dean, Kan. State Teachers College, Emporia, Kan.
 Bushnell, Almon W., Superintendent of Schools, Meredith, N.H.
 Buswell, Professor G. T., University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
 Butterworth, Professor Julian E., Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
 Byerly, Carl L., Principal, Wydown School, Clayton, Mo.
- Cahoon, Professor G. P., Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
 Calcia, Mrs. Lillian Acton, State Teachers College, Newark, N.J.
 Calden, Mary Frances, Principal, Hannigan and Taylor Schools, New Bedford, Mass.
 Cameron, Walter C., Principal, Lincoln Junior High School, Framingham, Mass.
 Camp, Dr. H. L., 44 North Tenth St., Indiana, Pa.
 Campbell, Harriett Z., Teachers College, Univ. of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio
 Campos, Professor Maria dos Reis, Univ. Federal District, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
 Carleton, Linus J., Superintendent of Schools, Helena, Mont.
 Carlson, C. E., Superintendent of Schools, Ramsay, Mich.
 Carmichael, Professor A. M., Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Ind.
 Carruth, Professor J. E., South Georgia Teachers College, Collegeboro, Ga.
 Cassel, Lloyd S., Superintendent of Schools, Freehold, N.J.
 Cassell, George F., Asst. Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, Ill.
 Cassidy, Dr. Rosalind, Mills College, Oakland, Calif.
 Caswell, Professor Hollis L., Teachers College, Columbia Univ., New York, N.Y.
 Caton, Anne J., Principal, Hale School, Everett, Mass.
 Cavan, Professor Jordan, Rockford College, Rockford, Ill.
 Chadderdon, Professor Hester, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa
 Chadwick, Raymond D., Dean, Duluth Junior College, Duluth, Minn.
 Chambers, W. Max, Superintendent of Schools, Okmulgee, Okla.
 Chambers, Major M. M., Headquarters, A.F.T.R.C., Fort Worth, Tex.
 Champlin, Professor Carroll D., Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
 Chandler, Turner C., 8718 Harper Ave., Chicago, Ill.
 Charters, Professor W. W., Stephens College, Columbia, Mo.
 Chase, Lawrence S., Superintendent Essex County Schools, Newark, N.J.
 Chase, Professor W. Linwood, Boston University, Boston, Mass.
 Chauncey, Professor Marlin R., Oklahoma A. & M. College, Stillwater, Okla.
 Chidester, Professor Albert J., Berea College, Berea, Ky.
 Chisholm, Professor Leslie L., State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash.
 Choate, Ernest A., Principal, Fidler School, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Christensen, Dr. Arnold M., State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minn.
 Christensen, W. W., Superintendent of Schools, Idaho Falls, Idaho
 Christman, Paul S., Supervising Principal, Schuylkill, Pa.
 Church, Harold H., Superintendent of Schools, Elkhart, Ind.
 Clark, M. R., Superintendent of Schools, Sac City, Iowa
 Clarke, Katherine, 6623 Kingsbury, St. Louis, Mo.
 Clement, William Woodward, Principal, East High School, Kansas City, Mo.
 Cloues, Paul, Sub-master, Harvard School, Charleston, Mass.
 Clugston, Herbert A., Dean, State Teachers College, St. Cloud, Minn.
 Coats, Capt. Alva J., Headquarters, Camp Claiborne, La.
 Cobb, B. B., 410 East Weatherford, Fort Worth, Tex.
 Cobb, T. H., Superintendent of Schools, Urbana, Ill.
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INFORMATION CONCERNING THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

1. **PURPOSE.** The purpose of the National Society is to promote the investigation and discussion of educational questions. To this end it holds an annual meeting and publishes a series of yearbooks.

2. **ELIGIBILITY TO MEMBERSHIP.** Any person who is interested in receiving its publications may become a member by sending to the Secretary-Treasurer information concerning name, title, and address, and a check for \$3.50 (see Item 5).

Membership is not transferable; it is limited to individuals, and may not be held by libraries, schools, or other institutions, either directly or indirectly.

3. **PERIOD OF MEMBERSHIP.** Applicants for membership may not date their entrance back of the current calendar year, and all memberships terminate automatically on December 31, unless the dues for the ensuing year are paid as indicated in Item 6.

4. **DUTIES AND PRIVILEGES OF MEMBERS.** Members pay dues of \$2.50 annually, receive a cloth-bound copy of each publication, are entitled to vote, to participate in discussion, and (under certain conditions) to hold office. The names of members are printed in the yearbooks.

5. **ENTRANCE FEE.** New members are required the first year to pay, in addition to the dues, an entrance fee of one dollar.

6. **PAYMENT OF DUES.** Statements of dues are rendered in October or November for the following calendar year. Any member so notified whose dues remain unpaid on January 1 thereby loses his membership and can be reinstated only by paying a reinstatement fee of fifty cents, levied to cover the actual clerical cost involved.

School warrants and vouchers from institutions must be accompanied by definite information concerning the name and address of the person for whom membership fee is being paid. Statements of dues are rendered on our own form only. The Secretary's office cannot undertake to fill out special invoice forms of any sort or to affix notary's affidavit to statements or receipts.

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7. **DISTRIBUTION OF YEARBOOKS TO MEMBERS.** The yearbooks, ready prior to each February meeting, will be mailed from the office of the distributors, only to members whose dues for that year have been paid. Members who desire yearbooks prior to the current year must purchase them directly from the distributors (see Item 8).

8. **COMMERCIAL SALES.** The distribution of all yearbooks prior to the current year, and also of those of the current year not regularly mailed to members in exchange for their dues, is in the hands of the distributor, not of the Secretary. For such commercial sales, communicate directly with the University of Chicago Press, Chicago 37, Illinois, which will gladly send a price list covering all the publications of this Society and of its predecessor, the National Herbart Society. This list is also printed in the yearbook.

9. **YEARBOOKS.** The yearbooks are issued about one month before the February meeting. They comprise from 600 to 800 pages annually. Unusual effort has been made to make them, on the one hand, of immediate practical value, and, on the other hand, representative of sound scholarship and scientific investigation. Many of them are the fruit of co-operative work by committees of the Society.

10. **MEETINGS.** The annual meeting, at which the yearbooks are discussed, is held in February at the same time and place as the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators.

Applications for membership will be handled promptly at any time on receipt of name and address, together with check for \$3.50 (or \$3.00 for reinstatement). Generally speaking, applications entitle the new members to the yearbook slated for discussion during the calendar year the application is made, but those received in December are regarded as pertaining to the next calendar year.

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